A CRITICAL INCIDENT STUDY OF THE PROCESS OF SELF-CONCEPT CHANGE IN THE ENCOUNTER GROUP SETTING

by

Anne P. Reamon
B.A., University of Kansas, 1965

Submitted to the Department of Speech and Drama and the Faculty of the Graduate School of the University of Kansas in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.

Redacted Signature

Professor in Charge

Redacted Signature

Committee Member

Redacted Signature

Committee Member

Redacted Signature

For the Department

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF CHARTS

CHART

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Coping with change in our continuously shifting environment has come to the forefront of our attention and energies. As the pace of our lives accelerates, we are becoming increasingly aware that change is the one thing upon which we can depend. As John Gardner expresses it, "A radical speeding up of the tempo of change is at the heart of the twenthieth-century experience and has gained a powerful grip on the modern mind."[1] The present, and even more the future, requires us to be aware of ourselves and how we relate to change within us, our personal lives, and our society. Again quoting Gardner, "One reason the individual can rarely think clearly about the renewal of society or of an institution to which he belongs is that it never occurs to him that he may be part of the problem, that he may be part of what needs renewing."[2] The starting point for examining change is ourselves.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to investigate and define the process of self-concept change by people in the encounter

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[1]John W. Gardner, Self-Renewal: The Individual and the Innovative Society (New York: Harper and Row, 1963), p. 6.

[2]Ibid., p. 130.

group setting. It is an attempt to uncover specific information about:

1. How changes in self-concept come about or evolve by looking at what occurrences precipitate the process,
2. What the process of change is and what developmental components are included in the process, and
3. What may contribute to facilitating positive self-concept change.

Definitions

Change

Change is defined as the recognition or experience of difference. As Don Fabun perceives it, "Change may be described as a measurable difference that an organism experiences in relation to its environment. It is an individual reaction inside the nervous system. It is not, for the most part, the world that changes; it is our experience of it."[3]

Process

Process implies movement. It is ongoing motion with no inherent beginning or end. Process is the "how" of change, with the implication that it is continual, never complete; dynamic, not static. To look at process is to look at movement, not necessarily the result.

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[3]Don Fabun, The Dynamics of Change (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1967), p. 7.

Self-Concept

The study pertains to the intrapersonal process of changing, what is going on inside the individual concerning herself or himself. Myers and Myers note that "This internal point of view is called by various names: self-image, self-concept, self-perception, etc. All terms have a common thread of selfness and of seeing."[4] The study begins with the most central vision, the individual's own concept of herself or himself, not as a static personality, but as a moving, experiencing, expanding, learning self.

Critical Incident

The definition of critical incident is taken from John C. Flanagan, who first developed the critical incident technique. As he defined it, an incident is "any observable human activity that is sufficiently complete in itself to permit inferences and predictions to be made about the person performing the act."[5] Flanagan goes on to say that "To be critical, an incident must occur in a situation where the purpose or intent of the act seems fairly clear to the observer and where its consequences are sufficiently definite to leave little doubt concerning its effects."[6]

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[4]Gail E. Myers and Michele Tolela Myers, The Dynamics of Human Communication: A Laboratory Approach (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1973), p. 104.

[5]John C. Flanagan, "The Critical Incident Technique," Psychological Bulletin, 51, No. 4, (1954), p. 327.

[6]Ibid.

Therefore, for the purposes of this study, a critical incident is any event with a cause, action taking place (internally or externally), and a result that is sufficiently complete to enable the individual to make a clear statement about the differences he or she becomes aware of within the self.

Encounter Group

Six Speech Communication and Human Relations classes at the University of Kansas were used for the encounter group setting. The course is titled, "Human Relations in Group Interaction I," and is available to juniors and seniors. The purpose of the course is to develop the students' ability to understand and improve their everyday human relations. The students are expected to gain greater self-awareness and self-confidence in communication; greater understanding and skill in dealing with others; and knowledge about how groups interact, develop, and promote personal growth.

Like other encounter groups, these classes use the laboratory approach to learning where experimenting with, experiencing, and receiving feedback about one's own behavior is the primary mode of learning. Lieberman, Yalom, and Miles state that "Encounter groups are people changing groups."[7] Within an encounter group one can enlarge and

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[7]Morton A. Lieberman, Irvin D. Yalom, and Matthew B. Miles, Encounter Groups: First Facts (New York: Basic Books, 1973), p. 92.

change self-perception. It is, therefore, an excellent source for looking at the phenomena of changing self-concept.

Significance of Problem

> Whether we set for ourselves the practical goal of improving behavior or whether we take on the intellectual task of understanding why people do what they do, we have to investigate processes of communication, influence, social pressure--in short, problems of change.[8]

Futurists are warning us of the mass chaos that can result if we do not begin to plan a better future. They point out that the increasing pace of our daily lives is having a profound effect on us now and will only increase in the future. The post-industrial society manifests itself most clearly by constant new input, fluctuation, novelty, uncertainty. New information bombards us daily through the mass media. "Truths" are disproved before the general public finds out they existed. Time is compressed. The future is now, and mankind is required to organize and plan for it more creatively and efficiently than ever before.

An essential part of planning and controlling our future, so rapidly converging with our present, is planning and controlling change. If we can control the rate and amount of change, we can prevent what Alvin Toffler calls

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[8]Dorwin Cartwright, "Achieving Change in People: Some Applications of Group Dynamics Theory," Readings in Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, ed. W. E. Scott, Jr. and L. L. Cummings, rev. ed. (Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, 1973), p. 563.

future shock. As Lauer and Thomas found in their study of the relationship between change and anxiety, "The data support the argument that a high rate of change generates psychological reactions which require adjustment on the part of individuals."[9] To control change we must understand it. It is essential that we understand change and our reactions to it. For, as Dale Lake says, "Change occurs by changing people; and, additionally, one changes people either by helping them to change themselves or by developing some collaborative effort between changer and changee."[10]

This century has seen the beginnings of attempts by various change agents to understand and bring about conscious, deliberate, intended change. A large body of literature is devoted to the problem, including such works as The Planning of Change edited by Bennis, Benne, and Chin and The Dynamics of Planned Change by Lippitt, Watson, and Westley. Change agents attempting to introduce such deliberate changes need to understand and extend their knowledge of, and approaches to change; and as Chin and Benne point out, "The processes of introducing such changes must be

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[9]Robert H. Lauer and Rance Thomas, "A Comparative Analysis of the Psychological Consequences of Change," Human Relations, 29, No. 3 (1976), p. 246.

[10]Dale G. Lake, "Concepts of Change and Innovation in 1966," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 4, No. 1, (1968), p. 16.

based on behavioral knowledge of change and must utilize people technologies based on such knowledge."[11]

But our knowledge of change remains limited, and it is not surprising to find, as Warren Bennis notes, that often "change agents fail to report their strategy or to make it explicit."[12] There seems to be no solid theory to direct the plan. Researchers in several fields have dealt with the study of change using such terms as organizational, social, behavioral, and attitude change. It seems that most theories resulting from their studies look at change, usually not the process. They look at the effects of change, not the process of changing. As Bennis says, "They are suitable for observers of social change, not for practitioners. They are theories of change, and not of changing."[13]

Cooper and Mangham have surveyed T-group research that examines attitude, perceptual, and personality change; and changes in diagnostic ability. Although most of the studies on which they reported were designed to include "a wide variety of measures for the purposes of detecting whatever

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[11]Robert Chin and Kenneth D. Benne, "General Strategies for Effecting Change in Human Systems," The Planning of Change, ed. Warren G. Bennis, Kenneth D. Benne, and Robert Chin, 2nd ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1969), p. 34.

[12]Warren G. Bennis, "Theory and Method in Applying Behavioral Science to Planned Organizational Change," The Planning of Change, ed. Warren G. Bennis, Kenneth D. Benne, and Robert Chin, 2nd ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1969), p. 71.

[13]Ibid., p. 64.

changes do in fact occur, expected or not,"[14] almost all of them concentrated on the differences before and after the group experience.

Concerning the studies that they examined in the specific area of perceptual change, Cooper and Mangham noted the absence of any specific mention of how the changes did or could have come about. "While all of the above studies have assessed in one form or another training induced changes in clarity of self-perceptions, none of them forged a link between the changes and the means employed to produce them."[15]

In his book, Changing Human Behavior, John Mann discusses his "review of evaluative research conducted in a number of content areas."[16] The content areas he chose were psychotherapy, counseling, human relations training, and education. He concluded that "There is little difference in the results of evaluative studies conducted in different content areas."[17] Under Mann's classifications of the nature of the methodology employed in these studies there were: pre-post, post only, pre-post with follow-up, and post only with follow-up. Note that none included any

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[14]C. L. Cooper and I. L. Mangham, eds., T-Groups: A Survey of Research (London: Wiley-Interscience, 1971), p. 25.

[15]Ibid., p. 32.

[16]John Mann, Changing Human Behavior (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1965), p. 192.

[17]Ibid., p. 209.

measurement or information generated during the process of the change being studied. Out of over 600 studies reviewed, the number was eventually reduced to 181 studies for active consideration. One of the criteria Mann used for the selection of the research to be examined was that "the change that the practitioners were trying to produce had to be broad, deep, and of general social significance; in this way, the evaluations would be of attempts to produce important change."[18]

Research on the process of changing needs to encompass not only the components of the process and the results, but also should be directed toward important changes--changes that affect our ability to cope with and manage our changing environment, and which improve our ability to change with and adapt to our experiences. As interpersonal and intrapersonal awareness increases, we can increase our choices about the direction and quality of our lives.

Concerning increasing interpersonal competence, Schein and Bennis emphasize the importance of attitude change.

> We have put our emphasis on attitude change because this underlies so much of the learning process, but we cannot assume that interpersonal competence increases automatically with attitude change. What we can say is that attitude change is a prerequisite for increased competence in the sense that any new behavior which does not reflect new attitudes will not be internalized or

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[18]Ibid. p. 192.

> stable . . . . Learning new competence means to us stable, internalized, integrated, new behaviors.[19]

While I will not engage in the debate over whether behavior change precedes or necessarily follows attitude change, it is recognized that to alter our behavior, change our direction deliberately, we often must change our attitudes.

John Mann notes, "Of all topics relating to ways to alter human behavior, attitude change has been the most carefully studied."[20] Yet, studying attitude change is not always studying significant change--that which is relevant to increasing competence, or to inducing positive, planned change. Mann continues:

> Perhaps the only major criticism that can be made of this body of research as a whole is that attitudes are not, after all, the most profound aspects of an individual, nor is a change in attitude necessarily followed by a change in behavior. The alteration of attitudes is, therefore, often a relatively trivial affair. This need not be so, but many laboratory studies have made it so, preferring to investigate peripheral attitudes, such as reactions to the likelihood of finding a cure for the common cold or beliefs about proposed monetary reforms, because it was felt that the use of such criteria would enhance the likelihood of success in inducing change.[21]

In order to move to the heart of change, to the place where change perhaps originates, I go to the area of change

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[19]Edgar H. Schein and Warren G. Bennis, Personal and Organizational Change Through Group Methods: The Laboratory Approach (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1965), p. 309.

[20]Mann, p. 97.

[21]Ibid., p. 98.

in self-perception. Self-perception, or self-concept, seems to influence our perception of everything else. How we see ourselves controls, limits, or defines how we see the world. As Cohen and Smith put it, "An individual's perception of a situation influences his behavior. In turn, a person's perception is influenced by his view of himself (his self-concept), his history, and his needs."[22]

If we construct a view of ourselves that tends to be realistic and open, we then can see the world more openly and can more competently affect the planning, control the changing of that world. As Carl Rogers says:

> Many people feel that self-acceptance must stand in the way of change. Actually . . . it is a beginning of change. . . . As might be expected, this acceptance of self leads to a feeling of greater realness and authenticity. It appears that the individual is learning both to accept and to be himself and thus is laying the foundation for change. He is closer to his own feelings; hence they are no longer so rigidly organized, and are more open to change.[23]

The more we know about our attitudes toward ourselves and our own behavior, the greater will be our mastery over our behavior and our future. Again, to quote Schein and Bennis, "Once the person realizes that he has alternatives, that he can make a choice about how he relates to others,

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[22]Arthur M. Cohen and R. Douglas Smith, The Critical Incident in Growth Groups: Theory and Technique (La Jolla, Calif.: University Associates, 1976), p. 59.

[23]Carl Rogers, "The Group Comes of Age," Psychology Today, 3, No. 7, (1969), p. 31.

and can choose responses partly on the basis of how others react to him, he has won more than half the battle."[24]

It seems clear that one of the essentials in understanding the process of changing is understanding self-concept and how it changes. Research in this area, too, is limited, as Nisbett and Valins have observed:

> Research in the area of self-perception has been arbitrarily restricted up to the present. . . . The analysis of the act sequence into cause, behavior, consequences, and attitudes is itself arbitrary . . . but it serves to show that research to date has been unnecessarily narrow and that there are undoubtedly some interesting self-perception phenomena waiting in the wings.[25]

It is appropriate, then, to look in depth at the process of changing self-concept to round out and expand our understanding of the general process of changing. If we can increase our understanding, improve our theories of the process of changing, perhaps we can have more control over the direction and quality of the changes in our own lives, and help others to do the same.

Organization of Thesis

In the Introduction, Chapter I, I have described the purpose of this study and defined the major related terms.

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[24]Schein and Bennis, p. 310.

[25]Richard E. Nisbett and Stuart Valins, "Perceiving the Causes of One's Own Behavior," Attribution: Perceiving the Causes of Behavior, eds. Edward E. Jones, et al. (Morristown, N.J.: General Learning Press, 1971), p. 76-77.

Here I also discuss the importance of investigating and understanding the change process.

Chapter II, Related Literature, lays a foundation for the process viewpoint of change. Comparisons among theory and literature on personal constructs, creativity, learning, self-concept, and changing (including change in encounter groups), provide the framework for the research and analysis.

Chapter III, Methodology, describes the pilot study and the Tennessee Self Concept Scale which was used for the pre-test and post-test. The critical incident technique dictates a large part of the procedure, and I have outlined it in detail as it applies to the study of self-concept change in the encounter group. I have included a description of the questionnaire and details of the technique including the formation of the major categories for the critical incidents.

Results, Chapter IV, are then reported. Information that was obtained from the critical incidents and the tests are presented. Here I include a description of the refined category system that developed from the critical incidents, the comparisons of the critical incidents to the scores from the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, and the analysis of the statistics.

In Chapter V, Conclusions and Discussion, I highlight certain relationships between the theories outlined in Chapter II and the obtained data.

The Summary and Recommendations make up Chapter VI. In developing and performing this study many possibilities for improvements, as well as indications for possible new research, emerged. In this chapter I summarize the study, note limitations, recommend improvements, and encourage following up many conceivable ramifications.

CHAPTER II

RELATED LITERATURE

Literature related to self-concept change could include a vast amount from diverse fields of study. Upon close examination several seemingly unrelated theories in various fields appear to have more in common than one might imagine. Personality theory, specifically personal construct theory, general scientific theory, creativity, learning, and change theory all directly apply. This chapter discusses these theories and their relationships to the specific topic of self-concept change.

Personal Construct Theory

The theoretical base for this study begins with George A. Kelly's theory of personal constructs. In describing the theory Kelly shows how we attempt to define, order, make sense of our unique reality by creating individually different personal constructs which enable us to anticipate future events. The constructs are the patterns we use to comprehend phenomena, and they may or may not correspond to reality. Kelly states, "Man looks at his world through transparent patterns or templates which he creates and then attempts to fit over the realities of which the world is composed. The fit is not always very

good."[26] Yet such patterns or constructs help develop a secure sense of our world.

Included in Kelly's theory are three points which are particularly pertinent to the formation of this study: (1) The personal construct system is a process in a continual state of flux; it is not a static, fixed system; (2) Personal constructs are created by each individual based in part upon past experiences, present perceptions, and future expectations; and (3) Self-concept is a construct, and is, therefore, individually created and open to change. I will discuss each of these three points as they relate to the theoretical formation of this study.

First, the personal construct system is a process in a continual state of flux. Throughout life we continually construct our reality. Our constructions of reality are constantly being revised, changed. Once we form a construct, interpret or attach meaning to an event or object, we do not stop. As Kelly expresses it:

> We must keep in mind that constructs have to do with processes and not merely with spatial arrangement of static objects. The use of constructs is itself a process also. Thus the use of constructs is a matter of choosing vestibules through which one passes during the course of his day.[27]

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[26]George A. Kelly, A Theory of Personality: The Psychology of Personal Constructs (New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1955), pp. 8-9.

[27]Ibid., p. 66.

A major consequence of this point of view is that we cannot look at a person as a consistent or fixed personality or even as one who periodically makes changes. Kelly states, "The person is not an object which is temporarily in a moving state but is himself a form of motion."[28] According to Kelly's theory of personality then, the process of changing is life itself. Any study involving people would seem to imply the need to include the concept of motion and change.

Second, personal constructs are created by each individual based upon past experiences, present perceptions, and future expectations. Personal constructs are interpretations of reality created by the individual. All of us have our own unique histories. Our perceptions of events vary. Our anticipations of events differ. Our personal construct systems may be similar, but they can never be exactly the same.

Even people who have similar experiences can form different constructs about them. People can be actors, not reactors as hypothesized in stimulus-response theory. We can be active creators of our understandings of ourselves and the world. We need not passively absorb; we often construct.

The personal construct system is a creative act. When we construe an event that alters a personal construct, or

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[28]Ibid., p. 48.

when we form a new construct in order to understand an event, we are creating.

Third, Kelly views self-concept as a legitimate construct and an integral part of the personal construct system.[29] Man interprets or makes sense of events and experiences as they relate to himself. As Kelly puts it, "It is his seeking to anticipate the whole world of events and thus relate himself to them that best explains his psychological processes."[30] Therefore, how we view ourselves becomes a major defining, contributing part in the process of forming the personal construct system. And like any other construct, the self-concept is created and open to change.

Kelly outlines three conditions that are favorable to the formation of new constructs.[31] One is the presence of a fresh set of elements as the context in which a new construct is to emerge. The fresh elements are unbound by old constructs which may be seen as incompatible with the new construct. Kelly gives examples of potential fresh elements which include an insular or protected environment, and verbal elements such as stories and composing and playing roles.

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[29]Ibid., p. 114.

[30]Ibid., p. 59.

[31]Ibid., pp. 161-166.

Another condition is an atmosphere of experimentation. Here an individual can try out new behaviors and explore anticipated outcomes. The new construct can be tried out in relative isolation before being incorporated into the rest of the construct system.

The third condition favorable to the forming of new constructs is the availability of validating data. The person can check the results of the new construct to see if it provides a viable framework for making predictions; or in other words, check to see if it works. Receiving responses or interpretations from others can serve to validate the new construct.

Testing and validating constructs call to mind the methods employed by all scientists in their laboratories. There are even more similarities between forming new personal constructs and scientific discovery than may be seen at first glance.

In The Structure of Scientific Revolutions, Thomas Kuhn makes the similarities between them apparent. Three key words are central in Kuhn's essay: paradigm, anomaly, and crisis. A scientist looks at phenomena through a paradigm, a pattern or model of the world that allows the scientist to define and give order to his or her field of study. This concept of a paradigm seems to be the same as Kelly's construct. Like constructs, paradigms allow the scientist to predict and anticipate phenomena. And Kuhn makes it clear that a new scientific discovery can only emerge when the anticipations prove to be wrong.

Anomaly occurs when an event violates the expected or anticipated as predicted in the paradigm. Continuous failure of the existing rules shaped by the paradigm may produce a crisis. Then as Kuhn states, "Crisis simultaneously loosens the stereotypes and provides the incremental data necessary for a fundamental paradigm shift."[32]

Scientific advancement, and for that matter any learning, is not only the linear accumulation of additional information and knowledge. New discoveries do not come from validating old theories or paradigms. They emerge from anomaly, crisis, and the formation of a new paradigm. According to Kuhn, characteristic of all discoveries from which new sorts of phenomena emerge are:

> the previous awareness of anomaly, the gradual and simultaneous emergence of both observational and conceptual recognition, and the consequent change of paradigm categories and procedures often accompanied by resistance. There is even evidence that these same characteristics are built into the nature of the perceptual process itself.[33]

The above characteristics parallel Kelly's theory of the formation of personal constructs. Whether scientists or laymen, we build theories to understand and explain what we see and to anticipate future events. We perceive the world through these models, and the models themselves

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[32]Thomas S. Kuhn, The Structure of Scientific Revolutions, 2nd ed., enlarged in International Encyclopedia of Unified Science, 2, No. 2, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1970), p. 89.

[33]Ibid., p. 62.

affect our perception. Viewed through a different paradigm or construct, we see an object or event as something else. Again, quoting Kuhn:

> Neither scientists nor laymen learn to see the world piecemeal or item by item. Except when all the conceptual and manipulative categories are prepared in advance . . . both scientists and laymen sort out whole areas together from the flux of experience. . . . Paradigms determine large areas of experience at the same time.[34]

Creating new paradigms or constructs is directly related to the creative process, and to the processes of learning and changing. These relationships will be highlighted in the following disucssion.

Creativity

Creativity is a natural human process. Carl Rogers defines the creative process as "the emergence in action of a novel relational product, growing out of the uniqueness of the individual on the one hand, and the materials, events, people, or circumstances of his life on the other."[35]

Creativity is not restricted to certain individuals such as artists or inventors as Rogers has become aware in his experience as a psychotherapist. "Intimate knowledge of the way in which the individual remolds himself in the therapeutic relationship, with originality and effective

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[34]Ibid., p. 128.

[35]Carl R. Rogers, "Toward a Theory of Creativity," Our Language and Our World, ed. S. I. Hayakawa (New York: Harper and Row, 1959), p. 174.

skill, gives one confidence in the creative potential of all individuals."[36]

Potential in itself does not guarantee a creative act. Rogers notes several conditions which foster creativity. Psychological freedom and psychological safety are two environmental conditions which are also common goals for the encounter group setting. Rogers lists three inner conditions of constructive creativity.[37] First, openness to experience requires that a person is aware of, open to, and able to perceive that which is outside his or her usual categories. This openness includes being able to tolerate ambiguity and conflicting information.

The second inner condition is that the evaluation of the new or emerging product is internal. The basis of the judgment is within the person, according to the person's own reactions and appraisal. Third is the ability to toy with elements or concepts. Spontaneous, unrestricted play with ideas or relationships shows the willingness to experience creatively.

Rogers describes one quality of the creative act that almost always appears. In the creative product there is evidence of a selectivity or emphasis which gives it the personal, individual essence.[38] It is the discipline, the

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[36]Ibid.

[37]Ibid., pp. 177-179.

[38]Ibid., p. 180.

attempt to bring out the unique essence, that indicates the individual's special way of perceiving reality.

Another person who has done significant study and research in creativity is E. P. Torrance. He identifies four steps to describe the creative process: preparation, incubation, illumination, and revision.

> First, there is the sensing of a need or deficiency, random exploration, and a clarification or 'pinning down' of the problem. Then ensues a period of preparation accompanied by reading, discussing, exploring, and formulating many possible solutions, and then critically analyzing these solutions for advantages and disadvantages. Out of all this comes the birth of a new idea--a flash of insight, illumination. Finally, there is experimentation to evaluate the most promising solution for eventual selection and perfection of the idea.[39]

Torrance discusses creative learning and points out that at the first stage when the learner senses some deficiency, gap, or disharmony he or she becomes uncomfortable and tense. This tension remains unrelieved until the fourth step when the new creation is in some way communicated.[40]

Another conceptualization of the creative process is outlined by painter and psychologist, Desy Safan-Gerard in a Psychology Today article, "How to Unblock." She compares the creative process to communication between people. She points out that if we are to understand the nature of the

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[39]E. Paul Torrance, Guiding Creative Talent (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962), p. 17.

[40]Paul E. Torrance, Encouraging Creativity in the Classroom (Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1970), p. 1.

creative process it is best to look at the middle where the work is going on. "From this viewpoint creativity is an interplay between the person and the matter at hand, a special quality of connection and communication."[41]

Following are the four stages Safan-Gerard uses to describe the creative process:

1) Perception, both of internal and external events. At this stage the more able we are to accept ambivalence and inconsistency, the more open we are to perceive a wider range of stimuli. Here we allow something to affect us. Safan-Gerard repeats the notion of tension here as she notes that most of us feel tense and uneasy during this stage.

2) Elaboration. The creator follows the leads that his or her perceptions communicate. Here we allow the idea to develop almost as if it were on its own and avoid forcing it into a preconceived mold. As in communication, we must "listen" to what is forming, allowing it to take shape and develop without prematurely defining it or cutting it off.

3) Expression. Creating something is expressing a part of ourselves. It may be new, surprising, an accident. In the expression stage the new part of ourselves takes shape and form. Safan-Gerard stresses the need to be free and spontaneous in this stage to allow the form to surface.

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[41]Desy Safan-Gerard, "How to Unblock," Psychology Today, 11, No. 8, (Jan. 1978), p. 81.

Any expectations or critical evaluation disrupts the expression.

4) Evaluation. After full expression comes evaluation, a standing back and assessing what has happened. The creator must detach enough at this point to be able to edit and revise if necessary.

Learning and Changing

George Kelly has said that "learning is not a special class of psychological processes; it is synonymous with any and all psychological processes. It is not something that happens to a person on occasion; it is what makes him a person in the first place.[42]

When we look at learning in the terms of Kelly's personal construct theory, learning can be said to be construing. A person forms personal constructs in order to anticipate and predict. In a scientific way he or she determines if new experiences validate or deny the prediction. A person can only learn what he or she can make sense out of, fit into the personal construct system. Kelly puts it, "One does not learn certain things merely from the nature of the stimuli which play upon him: he learns only what his framework is designed to permit him to see in the stimuli."[43]

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[42]Kelly, p. 75.

[43]Ibid., p. 76.

Openness to stimuli becomes crucial to learning and to changing. To receive new information we need to open ourselves up, to become aware of the existence of the stimuli. The boundaries of the personal constructs must be permeable enough to allow the entrance of the new information. Learning how to become open to new information can be seen to be an overriding requirement for learning and changing.

In their study on "The Effects of Laboratory Training," Lennung and Ahlberg use the notion of meta-learning. They point out that laboratory training is "presumed to provide learning about how to learn in the area of personal and interpersonal phenomena."[44] The content of learning is underplayed in encounter, while meta-learning is stressed. As Lennung and Ahlberg say, "Laboratory learning deliberately emphasizes providing learning about the circumstances under which relevant information can be gathered and interpreted, and there is correspondingly little emphasis on the actual content of the learning."[45]

This concept of meta-learning is used by Schein and Bennis in their conceptulization of attitude change and the learning cycle. In their book, Personal and Organizational Change Through Group Methods: The Laboratory Approach, Schein and Bennis begin the development of their learning

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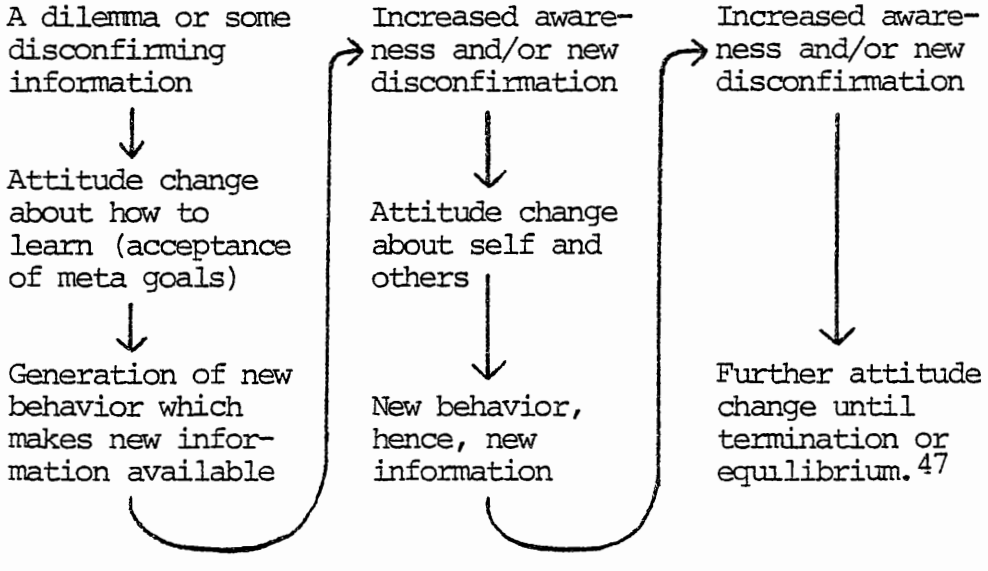
[44]Sven-Ake Lennung and Ake Ahlberg, "The Effects of Laboratory Training: A Field Experiment," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 11, No. 2, (1975), p. 177.

[45]Ibid.

cycle with the prerequisite of meta-learning. A person cannot begin to learn until he or she receives new information that causes some dilemma or disconfirmation. And a person will not do that unless he changes his attitude about what kind of information is relevant. Quoting Schein and Bennis:

> In order to be able to learn from the laboratory, the person must then change his attitudes about the learning process itself. . . . The person will not be able to obtain new awareness of himself and others unless he learns to pay attention to, and to value the here-and-now data which he and others generate in the laboratory. Learning to pay attention to and value such data involves a fundamental attitude change toward the learning process itself. This first attitude change step is, therefore, the single most important component in the total learning cycle.[46]

They proceed to formulate their theory of the learning process in the form of a cycle with three interdependent levels:



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[46] Schein and Bennis, p. 273.

[47] Ibid., p. 274.

Schein and Bennis go on to say that,

> the basic elements of this cycle are: (1) that information serves both as the source of attitude change and increased awareness, depending upon the degree to which it unfreezes the person, (2) that attitude change is the fundamental prerequisite to behavior change, and (3) that only behavior change makes new information available to others.[48]

Therefore, to understand the basic learning cycle, we must also have an understanding of a central component of the cycle--attitude change. A change in self-concept is a change in one's attitudes about himself or herself. It is a particular kind of attitude change as explained by Schein and Bennis:

> We are talking about the changing of certain category of attitudes--those attitudes which pertain to the learning process and those which pertain to self, others, and groups. One key characteristic of such attitudes is that they are generally quite central to the person and are likely to be integrated with his self-concept and his personality. Dilemmas and disconfirmations arise from and in turn produce powerful emotional responses and arouse what might well be called "social anxiety" or anxiety about basic sense of identity. Consequently, attitudes in this area are likely to be strongly held and to resist change. The kind of model of attitude change we will present is specifically designed to deal with the changing of such strongly held central attitudes.[49]

Their model corresponds to Lewin's three stages of change: unfreezing, change, refreezing. Schein and Bennis identify certain key mechanisms in the three-stage

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[48] Ibid.

[49] Ibid., p. 275.

process.[50] Unfreezing is the first complex step in the process. It begins as the individual experiences the familiar in a new and strange way. The situation becomes ambiguous and does not fit into the individual's accepted frame of reference. He or she experiences confusion, anxiety, disequilibrium. Old perceptions are disconfirmed.

If the person is in a situation that provides what Carl Rogers calls a climate of psychological freedom and safety, he will then move to the second stage in the cycle. He will begin to scan his environment or identify with another person whose belief system seems more relevant, searching for cues to enable a shifting to a new frame of reference that he can fit into his attitude system.

In the refreezing stage the individual relates or integrates the new attitude or response into the rest of his personality system and into his behavior in relationships with others. This last step can be temporary as new information comes in to cause the process to start over again.

Processes

Running through this entire study is the concept of process: person as process, the creative process, the learning process, the process of changing. And through the discussion of each of these processes there seems to be

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[50] Ibid., pp. 275-276.

more than one common thread. In fact, if one looks past certain semantic differences and particular linear progressions, similarities are striking.

Perhaps the most coherent way of outlining the similarities and comparing the various steps or stages in the processes highlighted above is to lay them out side by side. (See Chart A.)

Why are theories of personality, creativity processes, and the learning cycle included in a discussion of the process of changing self-concept? Changing a self-concept can be viewed as the creation of a new personal construct about oneself. If something has been created, there has necessarily been a change; something occurs that is new or novel, at least to the individual.

At Stage 1 we are confronted by an unanticipated event, one that is not easily integrated into the whole construct system. This stage can be expressed as ambiguity, unfreezing, disconfirmation, openness to new perception, and it is quite likely to produce tension or anxiety that stimulates further movement into Stage 2.

In Stage 2 we explore, experiment, play, search for new relationships, information, and solutions, Here we may look to other people for answers or to serve as models.

Stage 3 sees us making a selection, expressing or emphasizing a particular aspect generated by the previous search. This new aspect or construct is illuminated and emphasized so that it stands out in a new shape and form.

CHART A

The Four-Stage Process

	STAGE 1	STAGE 2	STAGE 3	STAGE 4
KELLY -- Personal Constructs	Use of fresh elements unbound by old constructs	Experimentation--explore and try out new behaviors	Formation of construct--new construct is formed at least tentatively reshaping the personal construct system	Validation--use of validating data
KUHN -- Scientific Revolutions	Awareness of anomaly	Crisis providing new data and loosening stereotypes	New paradigm emerges	Test discovery in context of new paradigm
ROGERS -- Creativity	Openness to experience, extensionality, tolerance of ambiguity and conflicting information	Toy, play spontaneously with ideas and relationships	Selection or emphasis of the essence; the individual perception of reality	Internal locus of evaluation
TORRANCE -- Creativity	Preparation-sensing a need or defiency producing tension	Exploring & formulating many possible solutions	Illumination-birth of a new idea, a flash of insight	Revision--evaluate and perfect the idea
SAFAN-GERARD-Creativity & Communication	Perception of internal and external events; gather information; uneasiness and tension	Elaboration-follow leads	Expression--may be unexpected, an accident, yet is a part of self	Evaluation--standing back to assess and revise
SCHEIN & BENNIS -- Learning & Changing	Unfreezing--a dilemma or disconfirming information; attitude change about what is relevant	Scanning--search for relevant cues, identify with model	Generation of new behavior which makes new information available	Refreezing--equilibrium, integration or new awareness & further disconfirmation

Finally, in Stage 4 we attempt to integrate the new construct into the system by evaluating, validating, assessing, and revising the construct. The new perception of the self is tested to see if it is viable and can fit into the rest of the personal construct system. If we skip to Stage 4 before allowing ourselves to fully experience and complete the first three stages, the evaluation is likely to break off or stunt the process. Then the new construct would not likely be fully formed to stand up to the tests of validation and evaluation.

For the purposes of this study the process of changing self-concept is examined as a four-stage process, in order to look at not just the product of change, Stages 3 and 4, but also the movement--how a person arrived at the product, Stages 1 and 2.

Stages 1 and 2 are the process stages. They are the ones to be emphasized and examined for evidence about the process involved in changing self-concept.

Self-Concept

Literature relating to two other topics is pertinent to this study. The topics are self-concept and the encounter group. The first, self-concept, has been briefly mentioned in relation to personal constructs, and it has been asserted that how we perceive ourselves is the central determinant for our perceptions of the world around us. Through our perceptions we construct, define, order, make sense out of the events, things, and people in our lives. We map our view of the world. At the heart of our map is the intricate map of ourselves, the organization of all our beliefs and inferences that pertain to ourselves. The self-concept is the organizational base of our perceptual field.

Chad Gordon and Kenneth Gergen compiled an overview of theories related to self-concept in the book, The Self in Social Interaction, which they edited. In approaching self-concept from their two separate disciplines, sociology and psychology, they conclude that the self is a concept of crucial importance in understanding aspects of both disciplines. They point out that "ultimately a thoroughgoing understanding of self will have to be linked to both an understanding of other psychological processes (e.g., perception, learning, emotion, etc.) as well as to patterns and processes of social interaction."[51]

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[51]Chad Gordon and Kenneth J. Gergen, The Self in Social Interaction (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1968), p. 5.

Perhaps the view of the formation of self-concept as a four-stage process parallel to learning and creativity begins that link.

Understanding the concept of self and the process involved in changing self-concept seems to be a basic ingredient in understanding many other aspects of the personality as well as society and social change.

In The Self in Social Interation, Prescott Lecky describes well the importance of self-concept change when he says, "It is sometimes necessary to alter the opinion one holds of oneself. This is difficult, for the individual's conception of himself is the central axiom of his whole life theory. Nevertheless, a gradual change in the concept of self is imperative to normal development and happiness."[52]

Both Lecky and Harry Sullivan discuss systems and the importance of the self-system as the nucleus around which the rest of the system revolves. Cognitive dissonance theory and Lecky's theory of self-consistency point out the human striving to fit experience and perception into a consistent construct system. As Lecky says, "Any idea entering the system which is inconsistent with the individual's conception of himself cannot be assimilated but instead gives rise to an inconsistency which must be removed

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[52]Prescott Lecky, "The Theory of Self-Consistency," The Self in Social Interaction, eds. Chad Gordon and Kenneth J. Gergen (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1968), p. 297.

as promptly as possible."[53] Lecky lists three ways an individual may deal with the conflict, or cognitive dissonance, provoked by a perceived inconsistency. One would be to seek vengeance. Another is to reinterpret the disturbing incident in a way that can be assimilated into the system. Third, it may be necessary to change an opinion or concept one holds about oneself.[54]

Lecky discusses the need to unify or harmonize the system of ideas about oneself and the emotional states that arise with inconsistency such as grief, hatred, horror, joy, remorse, guilt, and fear. The emotions involved in the perceptions of self cannot be ignored. As Sullivan states, the self-system is "the principal stumbling block to favorable changes in personality. . . . It is also the principal influence that stands in the way of unfavorable changes in personality."[55] Sullivan views the self-system as "an organization of educative experience called into being to avoid or minimize incidents of anxiety.[56] This view emphasizes the importance anxiety plays in learning, change, and interpersonal relations, and shows how the emotional tone of

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[53]Lecky, p. 297.

[54]Ibid.

[55]Harry Stack Sullivan, "Beginnings of the Self-System," The Self in Social Interaction, eds. Chad Gordon and Kenneth J. Gergen (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1968), p. 177.

[56]Ibid., p. 174.

an incident can affect the possibilities of a change in self-perception.

Albert Pepitone supports the view that "strong emotional states like anxiety and 'excitement' can presumably be used to weaken identity and thus arouse a need for it."[57] The emotional state of an individual in the process of changing a concept of self is, therefore, included as an important point to consider in this study.

Identity or self-concept is in many ways unclearly or differentially defined by many theorists. Self may be viewed as the subject of experience or the object, the knower or the known. It may include changing impressions, fleeting images and feelings of an active self or reliable, organized, crystallized products of a passive self. It may be seen as a single, unchanging entity or as multiple in character, variable in situations, and often inconsistent. It may be defined as a structure with clearly defined boundaries or a dynamic process.

Without debating such theoretical points, this thesis is based on the view that the self-concept is a dynamic, changing construct system central to understanding the human being in interaction with others and the environment. As Gergen says, "A revision of the construct of self seems in order, and such a revision might profitably be directed toward a

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[57]Albert Pepitone, "An Experimental Analysis of Self-Dynamics," The Self in Social Interaction, eds. Chad Gordon and Kenneth J. Gergen (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1968), p. 348.

theory of multiple selves. In lieu of the self-concept a process of self-conception will ultimately be necessary."[58]

In David Swanson's and Jesse Delia's description of their constructivist view of persons, which is based upon George Kelly's theory, they note that "perceptions and inferences are organized in terms of the individual's self-concept. Those categories having self-relevance, of course, are among the most basic and important categories in the person's overall perceptual system."[59]

Swanson and Delia highlight two aspects of the self-concept that they consider to be especially important, both of which are relevant to this study. Expanding on Gergen's view, one point they make is that the self-concept is multidimensional, multifaceted, as opposed to an inflexible set of consistent, unified ideas about oneself.[60]

We all have a wide range of behavior that we can apply to different situations. We are made up of many different facets, and we perceive and evaluate these many facets in diverse situations. Therefore, we can perceive, form, and change opinions about one part of ourselves in a certain situation and other parts of ourselves in different

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[58]Kenneth J. Gergen, "Personal Consistency and the Presentation of Self," The Self in Social Interaction, eds. Chad Gordon and Kenneth J. Gergen (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1968), p. 307.

[59]David L. Swanson and Jesse G. Delia, "The Nature of Human Communication," Modcom: Modules in Speech Communication, eds. Ronald L. Applbaum and Roderick P. Hart (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1976), p. 19.

[60]Ibid, p. 18.

situations. A change in self-concept does not mean a change in the total personality. A change in self-concept can be a new, added awareness of self (additional construct), or it can be a different feeling or attitude about a previously existing part of the self (disconfirming construct).

The other important point that Swanson and Delia make "is that the self-concept is developed in interaction and is, in large measure, the product of communication from others."[61] We are not born with a self-concept. We create our perceptions of ourselves based upon our interaction with others. What others tell us about ourselves, how we imagine we appear to them, and how they judge that appearance, and our reactions or self-feeling all contribute to and form our beliefs and attitudes about ourselves.

Vital here is the notion that the self-concept is a construct that is in a perpetual process of being created. As we receive new and different feedback from others, as we make new or added inferences about ourselves and others' opinions, as we communicate with different people, we are constantly modifying, adding to, changing our perceptions of various dimensions of ourselves. Not a static reality, the self-concept is a process, a creative process.

Encounter Groups

The encounter group offers a convenient and likely source for the investigation of self-concept change. Lakin

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[61] Ibid.

and Carson state, "The feedback processes, the affect arousal, the powerful inducements to behave in new ways, all characteristic of the group experience, destroy old balances and accommodations among affects, cognitions, and behaviors and generate pressures to construct new ones along consensually validated lines."[62]

Even though, as Blumberg and Golembiewski say, "Research on individual change as a result of intensive group experience is only beginning and is inconclusive in many important particulars,"[63] I will cite a few studies that serve as a backdrop to this study.

Matthew Miles' study of 34 elementary school principals attending a two-week human relations training laboratory highlight three types of self-directed changes that are accelerated by the laboratory experience:

> Although changes are more frequent for experimental subjects in all categories, there are differences among categories in the proportion of subjects for whom change was reported. The cluster of categories with both the highest proportions of participants seen as changed and the largest experimental-control differences has increased openness, receptivity, tolerance of differences as its common content. A second cluster has a theme of increased operational skill in interpersonal relations with overtones of increased capacity for

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[62]Martin Lakin and Robert C. Carson, "A Therapeutic Vehicle in Search of a Theory of Therapy," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 2, No. 1, (1966), p. 33.

[63]Arthur Blumberg and Robert T. Golembiewski, Learning and Change in Groups (Harmondsworth, Middlesex, England: Penguin, 1976), p. 11.

> collaboration. A third major cluster has to do with improved understanding and diagnostic awareness of self, others and interactive processes in groups. There are empathic as well as purely intellectual threads binding this third cluster.[64]

The above study by Miles was a follow-up to one by Douglas Bunker and was performed partially to test Bunker's innovative category system. Bunker had also found a disproportionate number of experimental subjects, as contrasted with controls, who experienced overt operational changes in insight and attitudes.[65]

Valiquet conducted a study on "Individual Change in a Management Development Program," intended "first, to further test the reliability of the instrument used by Miles and Bunker; and second, to add to their work in providing the beginning of a body of normative data on differential learning outcomes of laboratory training."[66] His findings concurred with Bunker's in that outcomes for participants tended to be individual and varied. Some qualitative differences were noted. "In particular, the greater number of significant changes observed in this

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[64]Matthew B. Miles, "Changes During and Following Laboratory Training: A Clinical-Experimental Study," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1, No. 3, (1965), p. 239.

[65]Douglas R. Bunker, "Individual Applications of Laboratory Training," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1, No. 2, (1965), p. 139.

[66]Michael I. Valiquet, "Individual Change in a Management Development Program," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 4, No. 3, (1968), p. 315.

study occurred in the overt, operational categories rather than in the inferred, attitudinal categories, as was more often the case in Bunker's study."[67]

Research more directly related to this study was conducted by French, Sherwood, and Bradford. They investigated "Change in Self-Identity in a Management Training Conference" by using questionnaire measurements of self-identity at the beginning, halfway through, and at the end of a two-week mid-management conference, and a follow-up questionnaire after 10 months. They concluded:

> Our results give some support to the proposition that a person's self-identity is influenced by the opinions that others have of him which they communicate to him and that the more that is communicated, the more change there is in self-identity. The data also suggest that the state of the individual plays a part as well--for the more he is dissatisfied with his present self-perceptions, the more he is likely to change them.[68]

In a study of "The Effects of a T-Group Laboratory," William Schutz and Vernon Allen found only 10 percent of 103 responses indicated no change in self-concept. Forty percent showed a change in the category of more tolerance, acceptance, liking for self, and a less critical view of

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[67] Ibid., p. 324.

[68] John R. P. French, Jr., John J. Sherwood, and David L. Bradford, "Change in Self-Identity in a Management Training Conference," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 2, No. 2, (1966), p. 218.

self. Intellectual changes, i.e., the understanding of self and increased awareness, were indicated by 17 percent.[69]

An encounter group, then, appears to be a likely initiator of self-concept change. As Carl Rogers expresses it:

> Individuals come into much closer and more direct contact with each other in groups than they do in ordinary life. This appears to be one of the most central, intense, and change-producing aspects of a group experience . . . . After a satisfying experience in an encounter group, what is most likely to change is the participant's attitude toward himself.[70]

The research that is related most specifically to this study is that undertaken by Lieberman, Yalom, and Miles and is reported in their book, Encounter Groups: First Facts. The questions that underlie their study design involve the sequence of events that lead to or influence individual learning or change. They included such variables as outcomes, participants' experiences, group characteristics, leader variables and characteristics, and person variables.

The part of their research that is most applicable here is described in Chapter XII, "How People Learn in Encounter Groups: Mechanism of Change."[71] The methodology they used is similar to that used here. At the end of each group

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[69]William C. Schutz and Vernon L. Allen, "The Effects of a T-Group Laboratory," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 2, No. 3, (1966), pp. 274-275.

[70]Carl Rogers, "The Group Comes of Age," p. 58.

[71]Lieberman, Yalom, and Miles, pp. 348-378.

session they asked each participant from 17 groups to answer the questions: "What was the most important event (for you personally) in the group today? Why was it important?" Through this procedure they received approximately 1,500 critical incident reports, or an average of 7.5 per participant. Two raters coded each incident into 22 categories based on:

> The event, what the respondent was referring to that had happened in the group that session; Who, how the event related to the respondent, whether he initiated or received it, whether it involved other participants, whether it referred to the group as a whole; and Response, how he felt about the event in relationship to himself."[72]

Lieberman, Yalom, and Miles' findings indicate:

> That the overall effects of encounter groups are primarily in the Value-Attitude area, and in the way a person thinks about and perceives the self. In some sense, these are "internal changes," changes that may or may not be apparent to outsiders. Behavioral manifestations, the index to others that an individual had changed, are not pronounced as overall effects of encounter groups.[73]

The durability of the changes was assessed in a six-month follow-up. They found that "for those who changed positively, three out of four were able to maintain these positive benefits--a high and perhaps enviable record of maintenance. Although the rates of change were modest, the stability of such change, when it did occur is impressive."[74]

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[72]Ibid., p. 350.

[73]Ibid., p. 116.

[74]Ibid., p. 109.

The research conducted by Lieberman, Yalom, and Miles seems to be the most exhaustive concerning the effects of encounter groups, and their results provide much new information. The present study is somewhat similar to part of their research in that it uses critical incidents to investigate in more depth one aspect of change in the encounter group--that of changing self-concept.

It must be emphasized here that this study is not designed to answer questions about whether or not changes do occur as a result of an encounter group experience. Rather, the central question is if changes occurred, how did they occur, i.e., what were the processes that the individuals went through in changing their self-concept?

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter on methodology, I discuss three main topics: the pilot study, the instruments used in the final study, and the procedures that were followed. The report on the pilot study includes a discussion of the purpose for conducting a pilot study and the results. The instruments I describe are the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the critical incident questionnaire. Under procedures, I detail the methods used to conduct this study, administer the pre-test and post-test, and apply the critical incident technique developed by John C. Flanagan.

Report on the Pilot Study

A pilot study was run during the summer, 1977, using two classes of "Human Relations in Group Interaction." The classes met for three hours twice a week for four weeks. There were 14 students in one group and 16 in the other, and they yielded a total of 20 completed questionnaires.

Purpose

The pilot study was conducted primarily to see if the questionnaire would elicit responses pertinent to the process of changing self-concept. The form of the questionnaire (see Appendix I) was suggested by the one used by Hartley Mackintosh in his "Critical Incident Study of Communication

Factors Utilized by Prison Guards."[75] Minor changes were made to adapt it to this study. The date was included to enable a time reference and comparisons to be made. In the description of the incident I asked for a notation if the group leader was involved for the reasons that Morton Lieberman describes:

> Theories of personal change in groups, like theories of individual therapy, emphasize the central importance of the group leader or therapist. It is through his actions or abstinence from action that change processes are initiated, are set in the right (or the wrong) direction. The development of an adequate practical theory requires not only a more precise delineation of particular leader modes of intervention and their consequences, but perhaps more importantly, an examination of the issue of the limitations of leader influence on the change process.[76]

Because this study is aimed at process, I included space for the person's "inner reaction" to the incident to elicit statements concerning components of the first and second stages in the process. To elicit specific statements about one's view of self before and after the incident I added two more parts: (1) How I saw myself before this happened, and (2) How I see myself now. Minor changes in the wording were made for the final questionnaire (see

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[75]Hartley B. Mackintosh, "A Critical Incident Study of the Communication Factors Utilized by Prison Guards," Master's Thesis, University of Kansas, 1973, p. 139.

[76]Morton A. Lieberman, "Up the Right Mountain, Down the Wrong Path--Theory Development for People Changing Groups," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 10, No. 2, (1974), p. 172.

Appendix I) to avoid ambiguity and to make it as relevant to the study as possible.

Results of the Pilot Study

The kind of coding system to apply to the questionnaires presented a problem. Many of those previously developed deal only with the results of the change, not the process. I used three known category systems in the content analyses of the pilot questionnaires, before applying my own categories which were expanded from the model suggested by Schein and Bennis. It should be noted that the analyses were somewhat cursory in that the questionnaires were not independently recoded to check for consistency or researcher bias.

First, I numbered the questionnaires 1 through 20, and then coded them onto Schein and Bennis' Scheme for Classifying Laboratory Goals.[77] (See Chart B.)

As expected all the responses concerned the individual as opposed to the organization. All but one questionnaire fit into the category of learning about self, and a large majority showed new awareness or changes in attitudes about self. The application of this category system shows that the questionnaire does indeed elicit responses about how an individual views the self and changes in those views.

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[77]Schein and Bennis, p. 58.

CHART B

Scheme for Classifying Laboratory Goals

LEVEL OF LEARNING

What Is the Learning About?	Who Is the Ultimate Client?	Awareness	Changed Attitudes	Increased Competence
	Org. / Ind.			
Self		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19	1 2 4 5 6 7 9 10 12 13 14 15 16 17 18	2 3 8 9 10 12 15 16 19
Others		3 4 6 10 12 19 20	4 6 10 12 19 20	3
Relationships in Small Groups		1 19	19	
Role		6 8		
Role Relationships		8		
Intergroup Relationships				
Total Organization				

Second, I subjected the questionnaires to a content analysis proposed by Schutz and Allen in their report of the study on "The Effects of a T-Group Laboratory." Their four major categories are:

1. Behavior of the Respondent Toward Other People,
2. Feelings of the Respondent Toward Others,
3. Behavior and Feeling Toward Self, and
4. Behavior and Feeling of Others Toward Self.[78]

They included seven subcategories under each of the above major categories (see Appendix II). Under the first category,

[78]Schutz and Allen, pp. 271-272.

the subcategory in which most of my pilot questionnaires fit, was "More aggressive, outgoing, extroverted behavior and more honesty, confidence, and willingness to reveal myself." In the second category more of the questionnaires were in the subcategory, "Feeling more sensitive, interested, honest, and realistic with people." Two subcategories predominated in the third category: "Intellectual changes, i.e., understanding of self, increased awareness," and "A more confident, secure, and realistic concept of self." In the fourth category the questionnaires revealed no change, which is not surprising since the questionnaire was not designed to find specific behavior changes in others toward the subject. Most of the responses fit into the third category, indicating changes in behavior and feeling toward self, which again points to the success of the pilot questionnaire. The subcategories under this third category do not give much specific information about the change in self-concept, and no information about the cause or process--only the result.

Third, Bunker's list of categories (see Appendix II) presented essentially the same problems as the one above. Tested by Bunker, Miles, and Valiquet; Bunker's system at least provides what he states is "an objective coding system which increases scoring reliability and permits an assessment of the content of the components in each subject's total change score."[79] In the first category of Bunker's system,

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[79]Bunker, p. 137.

Overt Operational Changes--Descriptive, my pilot questionnaires clustered around the subcategory, "Risk Taking--willing to take stand, less inhibited, experiments more." Two subcategories were predominant for the second category, "Inferred Changes in Insight and Attitudes:" (1) Self-Confidence, and (2) Insight into self and role-understands job demands, more aware of own behavior, better adjusted to job. They fell within this last subcategory because of the pertinent phrase, "more aware of own behavior."

Again, the problems with this category system are the lack of information obtained about anything but the result of the change, and the small number of defining characteristics about how one sees the self.

To include more about the change process, I turned to Schein and Bennis and their elaboration of Lewin's three-stage conceptualization of the process of change:

> The first two of these stages are necessary conditions of change, the third is concerned with the stability of whatever change occurs. Under each of these stages, we can identify certain key mechanisms, as follows:
>
> Stage 1. Unfreezing
>
> 1. Lack of confirmation or disconfirmation
> 2. Induction of guilt-anxiety
> 3. Creation of psychological safety by reduction of threat or removal of barriers to change
>
> Stage 2. Changing
>
> 1. Scanning the interpersonal environment
> 2. Identifying with a model

Stage 3. Refreezing

1. Personal--integrating new responses into the rest of the personality and attitudes system
2. Relational--integrating new responses into ongoing significant relationships[80]

The above outline can be seen as the temporal stages in the process of changing attitudes, particularly about self. Within or running through these stages, what specific elements are likely to appear? To begin, Schein and Bennis cite three important ones:

> One of the major reasons why learning theory has been so difficult to develop in reference to laboratory training is that the learning outcomes involve at one and the same time a cognitive element (increased awareness), an emotional element (changed attitudes), and a behavioral element (changed interpersonal competence).[81]

Following is the preliminary coding system to which I subjected the pilot questionnaire to try to find out what elements were involved in each stage. It is an attempt to extract information about the elements Schein and Bennis point out, as well as others that may run through the temporal process of changing. (See Chart C.)

As can be seen these categories give some information about the kinds of activity within each of the stages, and the shape of the movement is roughly outlined. These signs of movement indicate that the questionnaire does elicit responses which include information about process.

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[80]Schein and Bennis, pp. 275-276.

[81]Ibid., p. 272.

CHART C

Preliminary Coding System

UNFREEZING--Input, Source, Dilemma, or Disconfirming Information	CHANGE--Throughput, Reaction to Input, Reorganization, Scanning	REFREEZING--Output, Integration, Response, Consequences, Result
Source of Input:	Directed toward:	Direction of Response
Self--perceived to initiate from inside self, internal	Self--look inside self for answer[n]	Self toward self[n]
External--perceived to initiate outside self:	Others--look outside self for answer:	Self toward others:
Other person in group[n]	Other person in group	In general[n]
Group	Group	Other person in group
Leader	Leader	Outside group
Outside group	Outside group	Others toward self:
		Other person in group
		Group
		Outside group
Mode of Input:	Mode of Scanning:	Mode of Response:
Cognitive	Cognitive	Cognitive
Emotional	Emotional[n]	Emotional[n]
Behavioral[n]	Behavioral	Behavioral
The Incident Was:	The Scanning Was:	The Results Were:
Pleasant	Pleasant	Pleasant[n]
Unpleasant[n]	Unpleasant[n]	Unpleasant
Difficult to do, take, think about[n]	Difficult[n]	Difficult[n]
Easy	Easy	Easy
Neutral	Neutral	Neutral

[n]Indicates where most responses clustered under each subcategory

——— Indicates the direction of movement from one stage to the next within the subcategories

The preliminary category system was changed and refined based upon the theories of personal constructs and creativity that were discussed in Chapter II. The main categories used for the final study are outlined at the end of this chapter in the discussion of data analysis. The raters of the final critical incidents developed other subcategories which are reported in the results of the final study.

Instruments

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale (hereafter referred to as the Scale), was used for the pre-test and post-test. It was designed by William H. Fitts, and it is a well standardized and widely applicable test that is simple to administer.

In Rick Crandall's review of self-concept measurements he states, "An attempt has been made to include all measures in the self-concept area which either have been used consistently in published reports or seem to have potential for further development. These include measures labeled self-esteem, ego strength, and self-acceptance, as well as many others."[82] Crandall ranked the Scale first in overall quality and recommended it over the others because "The

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[82]Rick Crandall, "The Measurement of Self-Esteem and Related Constructs," Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes, eds. John P. Robinson and Phillip R. Saver (University of Michigan at Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research, 1973), p. 55.

scale has most of the positive attributes we would look for in a scale, and an active author. The use of several subscores should be encouraged to give a full picture of the self-concept."[83]

The Scale contains 14 scores on the counseling form. In the Manual, Fitts describes the meaning of each score.[84] Following are the identifications and definitions of those scores:

A. The Self-Criticism Score (SC). This score is derived from the rating of mildly derogatory statements that most people admit as being true for them. An extremely high score may indicate a lack of defenses, while medium to high scores indicate a healthy openness and capacity for self-criticism. Low scores may show that the person is defensive and would suggest that the Positive Scores are artificially elevated by this defensiveness.

B. The Total Positive Score (TP). The total Positive score is the most important of the 14 scores. It reflects the overall level of self-esteem. High scores indicate liking of self, feelings of value, worth, and confidence that are manifested in behavior. Low scores indicate self-doubt, lack of faith or confidence in self, and frequent feelings of anxiousness, depression, and unhappiness. The

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[83]Ibid., p. 69.

[84]William H. Fitts, Manual: Tennessee (Department of Mental Health) Self Concept Scale (Nashville, Tenn.: Counselor Recordings and Tests, 1965), pp. 2-3.

Total Positive score is the cumulative Row or Column scores.

1. Row 1 - Identity. Here persons describe their basic identity, who they are and how they see themselves.
2. Row 2 - Self-Satisfaction. This score reflects how people accept themselves, their feelings of satisfaction with who they are and what they do.
3. Row 3 - Behavior. This score measures people's perceptions of their actions.
4. Column A - Physical Self. This score includes ratings of the body, health, sexuality, physical appearance and skills.
5. Column B - Moral-Ethical Self. Feelings of moral worth, "good" or "bad," and satisfaction with one's religion or lack of it are reflected here.
6. Column C - Personal Self. This score indicates a person's evaluation of his or her personality, personal worth, and adequacy apart from the body or relationships to others.
7. Column D - Family Self. This score refers to the individual's perception of self in reference to the closest and most immediate circle of family and associates. It reflects feelings of adequacy and worth as a family member.
8. Column E - Social Self. The sense of adequacy and worth in social interaction with other people in general is rated here.

C. The Total Variability Score (TV). The Variability scores measure the amount of variability or inconsistency from one area of self-perception to another. High scores mean that the subject is quite variable while low scores indicate low variability which may suggest rigidity if extremely low. The Total Variability score represents the total amount of variability for the entire record. High scores reflect little unity or integration of the different areas of self-concept. Well integrated persons usually score below the mean but above the first percentile.

1. Column Variability (CV). This score measures and summarizes the variations within the columns.
2. Row Variability (RV). This score is the sum of the variations across the rows.

D. The Distribution Score (D). The way one distributes the answers across the five available choices in responding to the items of the Scale is summarized in this score. It reflects the certainty about the perception of self. High scores indicate that the person is very definite and certain in what he or she says about the self, while low scores mean just the opposite. Extreme scores on this variable are undesirable in either direction.

The Scale norms were developed from a broad sample of 626 people. The sample included people from many parts of the United States, and their ages ranged from 12 years to 62 years. The effects of such demographic variables as sex, age, race, education, and intelligence on the scores are

quite negligible, although the norms were established from samples which overrepresented college students, white subjects, and persons of ages 12 years to 30 years.[85] This overrepresentation occurs in the subjects making up the sample for the present study.

CHART D

Tennessee Self Concept Scale Norms

SCORE	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	RELIABILITY
Self-Criticism	35.54	6.70	.75
Total Positive	345.57	30.70	.92
Row 1	127.10	9.96	.91
Row 2	103.67	13.79	.88
Row 3	115.01	11.22	.88
Col. A	71.78	7.67	.87
Col. B	70.33	8.70	.80
Col. C	64.55	7.41	.85
Col. D	70.83	8.43	.89
Col. E	68.14	7.86	.90
Total Variability	48.53	12.42	.67
Col. V.	29.03	9.12	.73
Row V.	19.60	5.76	.60
Distribution	120.44	24.19	.89

[85] Ibid., p. 13

The test-retest reliability data is based upon the scores of 60 college students over a two-week period and is reported along with the norms in Chart D.

By using the Scale for the pre-test and post-test, various dimensions of self-concept can be examined and compared to the critical incident reports in order to obtain a more refined picture of the self-concept. Changes in particular dimensions that contribute to the total concept of self may be pinpointed.

The Critical Incident Questionnaire

The final questionnaire is essentially the same as the one used in the pilot study. It is an open-ended, one-page form on which the subjects reported incidents which caused them or allowed them to see themselves differently or in a new way. (See Appendix I.) On the form the subjects were requested to provide a small amount of personal data, describe the incident, note leader involvement, describe the inner reaction while the incident was taking place, and make a statement concerning previous and present view of self.

The questionnaires were identified by student number, as were the Scales, so that comparisons could be made among them while preserving anonymity. Only minor changes in the phraseology of the pilot questionnaire were made for the final questionnaire. No specific examples of possible incidents were given to avoid influencing the content or tone of the reports. The instructions for completing the questionnaires are described under the procedures used for the critical incident technique in this chapter.

Procedures

The following methods and procedures for gathering information to describe the processes involved in self-concept change were employed. Simply stated, the procedure included a pre-test, critical incident self-reports, and a post-test.

Pre-Test, Post-Test

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale was administered to six sections of "Human Relations and Group Interaction I." I visited each section at the first or second meeting, introduced the study, explained the questionnaires, and administered the Scale. I assured the participants that their identity would not be known by myself or anyone else, although they were welcome to come to me for their test scores and test interpretation if they were interested.

The pre-test took approximately 20 minutes of the three-hour class period. I collected the pre-test Scales at that time, kept them grouped by section, and ordered them in each section by student number from lowest to highest.

At the end of the school semester I visited the last session of each group and administered the post-test Scale. This again took approximately 20 minutes. The participants were again assured of anonymity, yet welcomed to see me for test scores and interpretation. At this time I also encouraged them to fill out and return any critical incident questionnaires if they could.

The pre-tests and post-tests were then scored, clipped together, and put in student number order by section.

On separate sheets I then recorded all 14 scores from the pre-tests and post-tests for each subject in order by section. On each test and on the separate sheets I noted which subjects had also turned in critical incident questionnaires and how many.

An analysis of variance was used for all Scale scores to compare differences between the pre-test and post-test scores and differences between those subjects who reported critical incidents and those who did not. Twenty-two subjects who took the pre-test did not take the post-test. Eight people took only the post-test. These 30 tests were not included in the analysis of variance because of the missing data.

Perhaps it should be mentioned here that control groups were not added to the design for this study because the main target is the internal process of change, rather than the effects or end results. As Roger Harrison says:

> The provision of adequate control groups for research on training is one of the most persistent methodological problems. . . . There are two ways around the control group problem which appear to me to be both genuinely valid and practical. Both require that we study the process of training as well as the outcomes. Instead of simply measuring participants before and after their passage through a "black box" called training, we must make some hypotheses about what it is that happens to the person during training which causes us to predict one outcome rather than another.[87]

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[87]Roger Harrison, "Research on Human Relations Training: Design and Interpretation," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 7, No. 1, (1971), pp. 72-73.

Process is the primary target of this study, and a control group would serve no useful purpose. Bennis concurs with Harrison:

> The reason we require "control groups" in experimental science is that the processes presumably go on in the famous "black box." So we cannot observe the significant middle state of "throughput." We can only ascertain the input and measure the output. But where it is possible to observe the throughput--the process--then the need for the crude experimental model is bypassed.[88]

In addition to the process analysis of the critical incidents, I compared the Scale scores for those subjects with critical incidents to those without, instead of comparing pre-test, post-test scores of controls to subjects.

The Critical Incident Technique

A. Rationale for Using the Technique. In an investigation of the process of self-concept change, I believe that descriptions of the stages of the change produce more information about the process than just a pre-test, post-test design. To describe the process, the methodology I chose is the critical incident technique developed by John C. Flanagan. He defines the technique as "a set of procedures for collecting direct observations of human behavior in such a way as to facilitate their potential usefulness in solving practical problems and developing broad psychological principles."[89] It is a technique for

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[88]Warren G. Bennis, "The Case Study: Introduction," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 4, No. 2, (1968), p. 231.

[89]Flanagan, p. 327.

collecting reports of incidents as they are experienced that have special significance.

I chose this technique for two basic reasons. One, it samples factual incidents of specific human behavior by direct observation, rather than relying upon generalities, inferences, or opinions in describing the process of changing or the results of change.[90] It seems to provide a manageable way to investigate specific events and communications that make a difference as to how a person begins to see himself or herself in a new way. It is a method that can go directly to the source of the change process within the individual actually experiencing it. Samples of critical incidents in the change process may then provide a complete record of all the important events experienced by the person in the process of changing self-perceptions.

Two, I chose the technique because it is a flexible set of principles that can be modified and adapted to meet the specific situation in which the changing occurs.[91] As has been noted, change has usually been measured before and after the event. A critical incident study allows observation and description to take place during the process, and it is open-ended enough to allow a molding around the process as it unfolds.

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[90] Ibid., p. 328.

[91] Ibid., p. 335.

By using people actually in the process of changing as the source of data, and obtaining reports of critical incidents from them, the study may provide a tangible beginning to the understanding of the process.

In discussing the few studies on the nature of the process of change in an encounter group, Carl Rogers states that the "kind of study, often scorned by psychologists as being 'merely self-reports,' actually gives the deepest insight into what the experience has meant."[92] And for him, "this kind of organized, naturalistic study may well be the most fruitful way of advancing our knowledge in these subtle and unknown fields."[93]

Lieberman, Yalom, and Miles used the critical incident technique in their study of the personal change process in encounter groups for just such reasons. They suggest that the participant himself be looked to as the primary source of data because "reports of the participants about the consequences of their experience in encounter groups constitute the most immediate, often the most poignant, data about group effects.[94]

Tests of the reliability and validity of the technique indicate that the results can be fruitful. In reviewing

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[92]Carl R. Rogers, Carl Rogers on Encounter Groups (New York: Harper and Row, 1970), p. 133.

[93]Ibid.

[94]Lieberman, Yalom, and Miles, p. 93.

the tests Andersson and Nilsson conclude that information collected by this method is reliable and valid and represents well the behavior units it is expected to provide.[95] This study, therefore, applies the critical incident technique in order to investigate and define the process of self-concept change.

B. The Five Steps of the Critical Incident Technique. The procedures employed in this study were in large part dictated by the five basic steps of the critical incident technique outlined by Flanagan,[96] as they were modified and adapted to fit the specific situation and questions. The five steps are:

1. Determine the focus of the study.
2. Make plans and specifications for collecting the data.
3. Collect the data.
4. Analyze the data.
5. Interpret and report the results.

In the subsequent pages of this chapter, I describe the specific procedures that were undertaken in each of the five steps to perform this research.

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[95]Bengt-Erik Andersson and Stig-Goran Nilsson, "Studies in the Reliability and Validity of the Critical Incident Technique," Journal of Applied Psychology, 48, No. 6, (1964), p. 402.

[96]Flanagan, pp. 336-345.

The first step, determining the focus of the study, requires the formulation of a general statement of the basic objectives of studying self-concept change. This statement was generally covered in Chapter I in the discussion of the significance of the problem. To follow Flanagan's specific guidelines for determining the focus, I asked several people with expert knowledge in the fields of human relations and change to summarize the general aim of studying self-concept change. The specific questions were, "What would you say is the primary purpose of investigating the process of self-concept change in an encounter group? In a few words would you summarize the general aim of studying self-concept change?"

The general concensus among the respondents was that awareness of self is particularly important in personal growth and development. If there are changes, it is hoped that the new concept will be more congruent with reality, and hence, the person can achieve more choice and self-confidence in interaction. Additionally, the respondents agreed that information about whether change occurs, what incidents produce it, and in what direction, will help to predict the developmental phases and improve training--the planning of change.

The second step in the organization process was to make plans and specifications for collecting the incidents. According to Flanagan, there are two parts to complete in this step. One, narrowing the scope of the study, was done

by focusing on change that significantly affects our self-concepts. Specific focus is also on process, rather than the end result of change. These are emphasized in the content analysis of the critical incident self-reports.

Two, Flanagan lists the selection and training of the observers of the critical incidents. The encounter group setting provides a likely environment for facilitating self-concept change. For this reason students enrolled in the encounter group course in the Speech Department were selected as the self-observers. In the fall semester, 1977, the course included six sections led by three individual instructors. The groups met for three hours once a week for 15 weeks. The students turned in weekly papers at the beginning of each class period, and the students could substitute a critical incident report for part of their regular assignment.

The number of subjects in each section ranged from 10 to 18. Most were juniors and seniors at the University; the majority were Caucasian, a few Black, and a couple were Latin American or Asian, although race was not recorded. Ages ranged from 18 years to 55 years, though most were approximately 20 years old. Initially, I met with the instructors of all encounter group sections to inform them of the content of the study and to solicit their cooperation. Then I attended the first or second meeting of each group to administer the Scale and to instruct and train the participants. The following explanation was given to all who

participated:

> During the course of a group such as this it is not uncommon for many people to experience a change in the way they see themselves. I am interested in how this process comes about and would very much appreciate your help for this project.
>
> The study is called a critical incident study of the process of self-concept change. An incident is defined as an observable event that has a cause, action taking place, and a result. That is, it would be any event, internal or external to you, that you become aware of concerning your self-concept or self-perception.
>
> To be critical, the incident must have a marked effect. It would be an event that seems to you to have made a difference in the way you see yourself. The incident may occur in the group or outside it.
>
> Self-concept is defined as the way you see yourself--the way you think or feel about yourself.
>
> If you experience a change in the area of self-concept, please fill out one of the questionnaires provided. The questionnaires may serve as part of your assigned weekly papers for this class, although they are not required assignments. The content will be used for information for a thesis, but your identity will not be included in any part of the thesis material.

All participants were given a consent form to be signed and returned by each, and five questionnaires to keep in their notebooks. An additional supply of questionnaires was given to each instructor to hand out as needed.

The third step in the critical incident technique is the collection of data. Each group met once a week for three hours during the semester for a total of 15 meetings. The students turned in their assignments at the beginning of each session. If the participants included a critical incident report, the individual instructors consented to

return them to me. I kept each group's reports separate and in order by date and student number.

At the midpoint in the semester I again visited each group to encourage participation and response via the questionnaires. At the end of the semester, during the groups' last meetings, I returned to administer the Scale post-test and ask for any possible questionnaires not yet completed or turned in.

The fourth step specifically outlined by the critical incident technique is the analysis of data. Each group was first assigned a number and then each individual report was given a number.

The content of the critical incident reports was then analyzed by two raters, myself and another Speech Communication and Human Relations graduate student. We examined the completed questionnaires to determine whether there was evidence of the four stages of change as discussed in Chapter II. The two raters examined the reports and recorded on index cards, (1) the group and incident number and (2) information on the following specific questions:

A. Group or Not Group. Did the incident take place in the encounter group or outside it?

B. Leader Initiated or Involved. Was the group leader-instructor directly involved in the incident, or did he or she initiate the incident as in suggesting or facilitating an exercise?

C. Direction of change. Did the subjects perceive the change as a positive, negative, or neutral change in themselves?

D. The four stages of the change process. Is it possible to see specific evidence in the report of the four stages?

1) Stage 1

a) Unfreezing. What kind of incident caused the unfreezing, disconfirmation, or opening up to a new perception?

b) Emotional Tone. Did the person express any anxiety or tension often thought to be associated with unfreezing? What specific words did the person use to express an accompanying emotion?

c) Active or Passive. Was the person actively involved in the incident or a passive observer?

2) Stage 2 - Exploration. Is there evidence of exploring, experimenting, or searching for answers, new relationships, information, or solutions?

3) Stage 3 - Illumination of the New Self-Concept. What kind of new or different aspect of the self is perceived? What new aspect of the self is selected for emphasis?

4) Stage 4 - Validation. Is there evidence in the report that the new perception is validated or confirmed allowing it to be integrated into the construct system? How was the new concept validated?

After the above information from each report was recorded on separate index cards, one for each category, and numbered by group and incident, each of the cards in the above nine headings was subcategorized. The subcategories that emerged lent texture and detail to the nature of the four stages in the change process. The nature of the activity and direction of change was also extracted and defined.

Interpreting and reporting the results is the fifth step in the critical incident technique. The results of this study make up the following chapter. The specific information derived from the critical incident reports are presented along with explanations of the subcategories. Also included are the results of the analysis of variance of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale scores.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The results of this study are reported in two sections. First is a report of the content analysis of the critical incidents. I describe the subcategories that emerged from the analysis of the main categories described in Chapter III. Second, I give the results of the analyses of variance performed on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale pre-tests and post-tests.

Critical Incidents

The number of students in each section of the Human Relations in Group Interaction course varies due to enrollment fluctuations. Each of the six sections was open to 18 students. Some people enrolled in the course, took the Scale pre-test and received instructions on the critical incidents, and later dropped the course from their schedules. Other students enrolled late and were not present when I gave the Scale pre-test and instructions for the critical incidents. Twenty-two people took the Scale pre-test, but not the post-test.

Forty-three people from the six encounter groups turned in one or more questionnaires for a total of 76 critical incidents. See Table I for the breakdown of the number of people and incidents by group. Five of the 43

TABLE I

Number of Subjects and Critical Incident Reports

GROUP	LEADER	NUMBER ENROLLED IN COURSE	NUMBER COMPLETING COURSE	NUMBER WITH CRITICAL INCIDENTS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL INCIDENTS	% OF ENROLLED WITH CRITICAL INCIDENTS	AVERAGE NUMBER OF CRITICAL INCIDENTS PER PERSON
1	1	19	18	13	32	59%	2.46
2	1	15	10	11	19	73%	1.72
3	2	21	18	3	4	14%	1.34
4	2	20	14	7	10	35%	1.43
5	2	17	14	4	5	24%	1.25
6	3	19	18	5	6	26%	1.20
TOTALS		111	92	43	76	39%	1.76

participants with critical incidents missed either the Scale pre-test or post-test. These five people turned in seven of the critical incidents.

The total enrollment figure for all six groups (111 students) is somewhat inflated due to student withdrawals from the course. Out of the possible 111, 43 participants or 39 percent, reported critical incidents. This 39 percent figure is also affected by student withdrawals.

The proportion of participants reporting critical incidents was considerably different among the six groups. Also, the number of incidents furnished by those who chose to respond varied among groups. This result can be explained in large part by the fact that I, as the researcher, was the leader of groups 1 and 2. The students in these two groups were constantly reminded of the questionnaires merely by my continued contact with them. The second leader, another graduate student instructor in Speech Communication and Human Relations, facilitated groups 3, 4, and 5. A third graduate student instructor led group 6.

Categories

The main categories make up nine individual headings.

I. Group or Not Group Incident

II. Leader Initiated or Involved

III. Direction of Change

IV. The Four Stages of the Change Process

A. Stage 1

1) Unfreezing

2) Emotional Tone

3) Activity During the Incident

B. Stage 2 - Exploration

C. Stage 3 - Illumination of the New Self-Concept

D. Stage 4 - Validation

Each of the 76 critical incident reports was analyzed to see if data fitting the above headings was expressed. Separate index cards were filled out for each of the nine main headings for each incident. The cards within each category were then separated to distinguish the subcategories that emerged.

The two raters of the critical incidents concurred on a high percentage of the descriptions of the subcategories within each main category. There were no discrepancies between ratings for the first two main categories, "Group or Not Group" and "Leader Involvement." Under the more subjective headings containing more subcategories, the interrater reliability remained high. Table II shows the percent of agreement between the raters of each category.

Categories and Subcategories

In this section on the results of the study, information about the specific subcategories that emerged under each main heading is listed and discussed. The tables present the number and percent of incidents in each subcategory.

TABLE II

Raters' Agreement

CATEGORY	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS WITH RATER AGREEMENT	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS WITH RATER DISAGREEMENT	PERCENT OF AGREEMENT
I. Group or Not Group Incident	76	0	100%
II. Leader Involvement	76	0	100%
III. Direction of Change	70	6	92%
IV. The Four Stages of the Change Process			
A. Stage 1 - Unfreezing	67	9	88%
1. Emotional Tone	70	6	92%
2. Activity in the Incident	73	3	96%
B. Stage 2 - Exploration	73	3	96%
C. Stage 3 - Illumination	75	1	99%
D. Stage 4 - Validation	64	12	84%
TOTALS	644	40	94%

I. Group or Not Group Incident. The participants were instructed to fill out a questionnaire about an incident that caused them to change their self-concept. The event could take place within the encounter group or outside it because the focus of this study is not specifically on the effects of encounter groups. Rather, the focus is upon the process of self-concept change wherever that might occur. Out of the total of 76 incidents, the participants reported on 65 events which took place in the group. Table III shows the number and percent of group and not group incidents.

TABLE III

Group or Not Group Incident

CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS	PERCENT OF TOTAL
I. Group or Not Group Incident		
A. Group Incident	65	86%
B. Not Group Incident	11	14%
TOTALS	76	100%

II. Leader Involved In or Initiated the Incident. The students were asked to note whether the group leader was directly involved in the incident or had initiated it as in directing a planned or spontaneous group exercise. The effects of leadership in encounter groups are important

considerations for leadership training and knowledge of groups. Of the 65 incidents which took place in the group, 31 were either: (a) directly initiated by the group leader in the form of a structured exercise planned before the meeting or an exercise suggested during the group session and arising out of a developing situation in the group, or (b) incidents in which the subjects reported that the leader was directly and actively involved. Table IV shows leader involvement in group incidents.

TABLE IV

Leader Involvement In the Incident

CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS	PERCENT OF TOTAL OF GROUP INCIDENTS
II. Leader Involved In or Initiated the Incident		
A. Leader Not Involved	34	52%
B. Leader Involved	31	48%
TOTALS	65	100%

III. Direction of Change. In analyzing the content of the questionnaires the raters specifically looked for the subjects' perceptions of the direction of change. Positive change is defined as a change perceived by the subject as being worthwhile or beneficial to him or her. Negative change is a change that is perceived to be detrimental or obstructive to the individual.

Some reports of self-concept change could not be rated as positive or negative. They were reports of new or different self-concepts that were neither particularly beneficial nor detrimental to the person. In addition, a few reports gave no indication of how the subject perceived the change in this respect. The raters judged both of these kinds of reports as neutral change. Table V gives the breakdown into subcategories concerning the direction of change.

TABLE V

Direction of Change

CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS	PERCENT OF TOTAL
III. Direction of Change		
A. Positive Change	58	76%
B. Negative Change	10	13%
C. Neutral Change	8	11%
TOTALS	76	100%

IV. The Four Stages of the Change Process. The raters analyzed the critical incident reports to look for evidence of the theoretical four stages of change. The four stages are discussed separately, and the subcategories in each stage are listed in individual tables.

A. STAGE 1 - UNFREEZING: According to several of the pertinent theories discussed in Chapter II, a person will

experience a time of ambiguity, dilemma, or anomaly while disconfirming old constructs and opening up to a new perception. This stage is divided into three separate headings to attempt to analyze the content of the experience. The three headings are: (1) The Unfreezing Incident, (2) The Emotional Tone of the Incident, and (3) The Activity of the Person Reporting the Incident. Under the main heading of the unfreezing incident, the raters looked for types of incidents which initiated the dilemma. These are listed in Table VI.

The largest subcategory in the following table includes incidents in which the subject initially only observed or listened to others. Such communications were not specifically directed toward the respondent. Related results occur in two other subcategories containing a large number of incidents: confrontation and feedback. In both of these types of incidents, communication was directed to the respondent. And in all three of these subcategories the large majority involved the self initially receiving communication from others rather than giving it.

Another major subcategory is the group exercise. Fourteen incidents were initiated by a structured group exercise as opposed to a situation arising spontaneously in the group (or outside it). A uniformly small number of incidents appear in the subcategories indicating that the subject initiated the incident. These include self confronting

another, self giving feedback, and self-disclosure, which together make up only 13 percent of the incidents.

TABLE VI

Unfreezing Incidents

CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS	PERCENT OF TOTAL
1. Observing Others, Listening to Others	19	25.0%
2. Feedback	(15)	(20.0%)
a. Self-Received	12	16.0%
b. Self-Given	3	4.0%
3. Group Exercise	14	18.5%
4. Confrontation	(14)	(18.5%)
a. Self Was Confronted	11	14.5%
b. Self Confronted Others	3	4.0%
5. Self In a New Situation	7	9.0%
6. Self-Disclosure, Sharing Self	4	5.0%
7. Feeling Alone, Different From Others	3	4.0%
TOTALS	76	100.0%

(1) Emotional Tone: The next subheading concerning the unfreezing incidents is the emotional tone of the incidents. Theory suggests that a person experiencing change will often react with tension or uneasiness to a disconfirming event. Vivid descriptions in the self reports of the emotional reaction were frequent.

Typical examples of negative emotions quoted from the actual critical incident reports are:

It really ticked me off. . . .

I really felt guilty. . . .

Extreme anxiety. . . .

At first I was shaken, embarrassed, and very nervous.

My first reaction was a feeling of uneasiness.

I was shocked at first. . . .

I was scared the class would react pretty hostile toward me.

I thought I had instantly formed an enemy. . . . I was totally embarrassed and just felt kind of outcast.

I was so uncomfortable.

I felt weird. . . .

I felt surprised, frightened, and grieved.

I was literally fuming.

Fairly unsure of myself.

I was very, very nervous; I was also very sorry and hurt. . . .

More and more upset. . . .

I felt ashamed.

I was very frightened and unsure of myself.

I was shocked. . . .

My heart was really pounding. . . .

I felt really defensive and very foolish.

I felt guilty . . . my heart began to beat violently fast, my ears were ringing, and I felt tears forcing their way out.

I felt both guilt and remorse.

Uneasy and strange (very outcast).

The raters looked for specific statements in the reports of the emotions experienced at the outset of the event. First, raters grouped the reports into the general areas of positive, negative, or neutral emotion. Positive emotions were essentially pleasant to experience; negative emotions were unpleasant; and neutral emotions were not particularly pleasant or unpleasant. Subheadings were then classified under each of these three areas. Table VII shows the classifications which emerged.

A large majority of the following responses fell under negative emotion, a result which substantiates the theoretical predictions. Tension and fear were the most common descriptions of negative emotion. Very few incidents began with the person feeling positive, pleasant, or comfortable. Neutral emotion was judged by the raters to be those emotions expressed by the subjects as being neither particularly pleasant or unpleasant. Their reports of such emotional tone merely acknowledged the existence of the emotion, but did not seem to place an internal judgment of positive or negative on it.

It is interesting to note that while 71 percent of the reports indicated an initial negative emotional experience, 76 percent indicated that the result of the change was a positive one.

(2) Activity of Respondent During Incident: The raters examined the reports to see if the subject was actively involved in the first stage of the change process, or a

TABLE VII

Emotional Tone In Stage 1

CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS	PERCENT OF TOTAL
1. Negative Emotion	(54)	(71%)
a. Tension, Including Feeling Discomfort, Confusion, Fear, Dread, Insecure, and Upset	28	37%
b. Anger, Including Feeling Suspicious, Frustrated, and Defensive	12	16%
c. Embarrassment, Including Feeling Foolish, Guilty	10	13%
d. Feeling Different, Unlike Others	4	5%
2. Neutral Emotion	(11)	(14%)
a. Surprise, Shock, Curious	7	9%
b. Concerned for Others, Responsible	4	5%
3. Positive Emotion	(9)	(12%)
a. Pleasantly Surprised	5	7%
b. Feeling Close to Others	4	5%
4. No Emotion Expressed	2	3%
TOTALS	76	100%

passive observer of the event. The resulting subcategories correspond to some of the headings under unfreezing. There, however, it was only indicated whether or not the person initiated the incident. This category extends the

information to include more behavior demonstrated in the first stage. Though the person may not have initiated the incident, the raters judged the person to be actively involved if he or she reacted overtly to the situation during the incident. A passive self indicates that the person remained an inactive observer of the disconfirming event. Table VIII shows the nature of the activity demonstrated during the first stage of the change process.

TABLE VIII

Activity During Stage 1

CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS	PERCENT OF TOTAL
1. Active Self	47	62%
2. Passive Self	27	36%
3. Passive, Then Active	2	3%
TOTALS	76	99%[n]

[n]Result of Rounding Off

The majority of the subjects reported active involvement in the initial event. Yet 36 percent reported no activity other than observation of others. Two people observed the event and then entered into it actively.

B. STAGE 2 - EXPLORATION: In this stage of the change process the person begins to explore and experiment with possible solutions to the previously perceived dilemma. Here

the person scans the environment searching for clues and answers to the problem, the disconfirmed construct. The raters analyzed the reports for indications of how the subjects went about this exploration. In Table IX the subcategories which appeared in the exploration stage are listed.

TABLE IX

Stage 2 - Exploration

CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS	PERCENT OF TOTAL
1. Information From Others	(21)	(28%)
a. Listened to Others and Assessed a New Viewpoint	14	18%
b. Observed Others' Behavior	7	9%
2. Tried New Behavior	17	22%
3. Listened to Feedback About Self	16	21%
4. Thinking - About the Meaning of the Situation or Event, or About Own Behavior and Own Feelings or Reactions	12	16%
5. Interaction Including Sharing Self With Others	8	10%
6. Identified With Others	2	3%
TOTALS	76	100%

Twenty-eight percent of the reports showed that the person observed or listened to others without explicitly indicating that they were looking for any kind of solution

from the others. Several people merely thought about themselves or the meaning of the event and their reactions to it. Another large group tried out new ways of behaving to see if such behavior was successful and would resolve the dilemma. Twenty-one percent listened to specific feedback about themselves in order to elaborate on the possible perceptions of self. In an additional 10 percent of the reports the raters found people interacting and sharing themselves with others to gain new insights and understanding. Only two reports indicated that the subjects specifically identified with another person to act as a model. According to Schein and Bennis' description of the scanning stage of the learning process more specific identification with another person might have been expected.

C. STAGE 3 - ILLUMINATION OF THE NEW SELF-CONCEPT: For evidence of this stage the raters examined the questionnaires for statements about the personal outcome of the incident. In judging these items two types of new self-concepts were emphasized: (1) an additional concept of self which did not contradict the rest of the personal construct system, and (2) a change in self-concept that contradicted an old construct. The raters subdivided the incidents under these two headings to add more specific information as can be seen in Table X.

New self-concepts that contradicted a previous attitude or belief about the self appeared in the majority of the reports. Such changes were often expressed by such

TABLE X

Stage 3 - Illumination

CATEGORIES	NUMBFR OF INCIDENTS	% OF TOTAL	CATEGORIES	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS	% OF TOTAL	TOTAL OF ADDITIONAL AND CONTRADICTORY CONCEPTS	% OF TOTAL
1. Additional Concept	30	39.0%	2. Contradictory Concept	46	61.0%	76	100%
a) New, Added Part of Self; New Awareness of Self	10	13.0%	a) Different Part of Self, Contradicts Old Construct	20	26.0%	30	39%
b) Self Can See More of Others	8	10.5%	b) Self Sees Others Differently	8	10.5%	16	21%
c) New Ability Not Seen Before	6	8.0%	c) New Ability Opposite Old Ability	9	12.0%	15	20%
d) Desire for Added Behavior	3	4.0%	d) Desire to Change Old Behavior	6	8.0%	9	12%
e) More Self-Assurance	3	4.0%	e) New Self-Assurance	3	4.0%	6	8%

statements as, "I thought I was . . . but I really am. . . ." or "I thought I couldn't . . . but I can. . . ."

In over a third of the questionnaires the subjects reported perceiving a part of themselves of which they had not been aware before. Frequently these perceptions were expressed in such terms as, "I didn't know I could do that," "I have never tried that before," or "I had not thought about myself that way before." These changes in self-concept seemed to show an increased awareness of self, as opposed to a change in perception or attitude about a previously known part of self.

The subcategories under the headings of both the additional and the contradictory concepts parallel each other. The subcategories including seeing a new or different self make up the largest group. The second largest grouping indicates new or added perceptions of others. A fifth of the reports concerned new abilities, such as the ability to initiate interaction with others or the ability to confront or be confronted. Some people indicated a desire to change a behavior or increase their behavioral responses. Surprisingly few reported specific increases in self-assurance.

D. STAGE 4 - VALIDATION: The raters looked for evidence of validation or confirmation of the new self-concept. The previously discussed theories suggest that a person needs to evaluate and revise the new construct in order to confirm it and allow the refreezing and integration into the personal construct system as a whole. The raters looked for

evidence that the subjects had attempted to evaluate and obtain confirmation of the new self-concept after it had been illuminated. The subcategories in the validation stage are listed in Table XI.

TABLE XI

Stage 4 - Validation

CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS	PERCENT OF TOTAL
1. Confirmed by Group	17	22%
2. Confirmed by Own Feelings or by Having Experienced the Incident	15	20%
3. No Validation Expressed	14	18%
4. Validated by Outcome, the Results of the Incident	13	17%
5. Confirmed by Specific Feedback	12	16%
6. Confirmed by Others' Behavior or Statements (Not Direct Feedback)	5	7%
TOTALS	76	100%

Many of the new perceptions were confirmed by the group in general. The concept was accepted and reinforced by the group. Often, however, the subjects seemed to use an internal assessment of their own feelings and reactions to the new perceptions for the evaluation and confirmation. This result corresponds to one of Carl Rogers' inner conditions for constructive creativity, an internal locus of evaluation.

Direct validation was shown in 12 reports in the form of specific feedback from other people concerning the self-perception. More general confirmation was accomplished by assessing the outcome or results of the incident and by observing others' behavior.

In 14 reports there was no indication of validation or confirmation. Theory suggests that if the new construct is not validated, it will not be easily incorporated into the personal construct system. At first glance it would appear that since the questionnaire did not specifically ask for a statement concerning confirmation or validation, there may or may not have been further validation of the self-concept. Yet, closer examination of the reports shows that of the 14 reports which did not include any indication that the new self-concept had been validated, 12 were rated as negative or neutral change. Eight out of the 10 new self-concepts which were judged to be changes in the negative direction were not validated. Table XII shows the validation of negative, neutral, and positive changes in self-concept.

Additional discussion and interpretation of the nine major headings and the subcategories may be found in Chapter V.

Categories Grouped Under Types of Unfreezing Incidents

Further analysis of the results of the critical incident study is accomplished by examining trends in the grouping of categories under each type of Stage 1 - Unfreezing. I grouped the incidents into the seven subcategories in Stage 1

TABLE XII

Direction of Change Compared to Validation

DIRECTION OF CHANGE	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS	NUMBER OF NEW SELF-CONCEPTS NOT VALIDATED	PERCENT NOT VALIDATED
A. Negative	10	8	80%
B. Neutral	8	4	50%
C. Positive	58	2	3%
TOTALS	76	14	18%

and charted the number of subheadings from the other categories which appeared after each type of unfreezing incident. Below I list the seven types of unfreezing incidents and show the groupings of the other categories which followed each type of incident.

1. Listening to or Observing Others. This type of incident was the one that most often caused unfreezing of the self-concept. All 19 incidents which fell into this category (see Table XIII), occurred in the group, and six directly involved or were initiated by the group leader. Not surprisingly, the large majority of reports showed a passive self. There appears to be no pattern to the emotional tone present during these incidents.

In Stage 2 - Exploration, the reports showed that when the incident involved watching and hearing others, the subjects would tend to remain passive during Stage 2. They continued to explore the problem by listening and watching,

TABLE XIII

Listening to or Observing Others
In Stage 1 - Unfreezing

CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS
I. Group or Not Group Incident	
A. Group Incident	19
B. Not Group Incident	0
II. Leader Involvement	
A. Leader Involved.	6
B. Leader Not Involved.	13
III. Direction of Change	
A. Positive	16
B. Negative	0
C. Neutral.	3
IV. Change Process	
A. Stage 1 - Unfreezing	
1. Emotional Tone	
a) Negative Emotion	(10)
1) Tension.	2
2) Anger.	4
3) Embarrassment.	2
4) Different from Others.	2
b) Neutral Emotion	(5)
1) Surprise, Shock, Curious	4
2) Concern for Others	1
c) Positive Emotion	(3)
1) Pleasantly Surprised	1
2) Close to Others.	2
d) No Emotion Expressed	1

TABLE XIII (Continued)

2. Activity	
a) Active Self.	4
b) Passive Self	14
c) Passive, Then Active	1
B. Stage 2 - Exploration	
1. Others' Behavior	
a) Listened to Others	7
b) Observed Others.	4
2. Tried New Behavior	3
3. Listened to Feedback About Self. . . .	0
4. Thinking	3
5. Interaction, Sharing Self.	1
6. Identified with Others	1
C. Stage 3 - Illumination	
1. Added Concept	(11)
a) Added Part of Self	2
b) Saw More in Others	5
c) New Ability.	2
d) Added Behavior	2
e) More Self-Assurance.	0
2. Contradictory Concept	(8)
a) New Part of Self	1
b) Saw Others Differently	5
c) New Ability.	0
d) Changed Behavior	1
e) New Self-Assurance	1
D. Stage 4 - Validation	
1. Confirmed by Group	4
2. Confirmed by Own Feelings.	4
3. No Validation Expressed.	3
4. Validated by Results	7
5. Confirmed by Feedback.	0
6. Validated by Others' Behavior.	1

assessing the meaning of a new viewpoint or others' actions.

The new self-concept in Stage 3 - Illumination that occurred most often after the observing, listening kind of incident was the ability to see others in a new way, either by being aware of more aspects of other people, or by defining other people differently than before.

In Stage 4 - Validation the new concepts frequently were validated merely by the outcome or results of the incident, the person believing that the outcome established the validity of the construct. Over half of the total reported new concepts which were confirmed by assessing the results of the incident occurred in this unfreezing subcategory, listening and observing. Positive change was the rule for this type of incident.

2. Feedback. Receiving or giving feedback to other members of the group was the second most common type of incident. (See Table XIV.) All 15 of these incidents occurred in the group, while only four involved the leader. Many subjects were active in the incident, and most experienced some negative emotions. Half of the 10 reports of embarrassment occurred in the feedback type of incident. In addition, six of the ten reports that indicated a negative change showed up in this category.

Stage 2 does not seem to show any particular pattern. Stage 3 sees only one new self-concept that concerns ability. When the concepts seemed to be validated, it was often by

TABLE XIV

Feedback
In Stage 1 - Unfreezing

CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS
I. Group or Not Group Incident	
A. Group Incident	15
B. Not Group Incident	0
II. Leader Involvement	
A. Leader Involved.	4
B. Leader Not Involved.	11
III. Direction of Change	
A. Positive	7
B. Negative	6
C. Neutral.	2
IV. Change Process	
A. Stage 1 - Unfreezing	
1. Emotional Tone	
a) Negative Emotion	(12)
1) Tension.	5
2) Anger.	2
3) Embarrassment.	5
4) Different from Others.	0
b) Neutral Emotion	(2)
1) Surprise, Shock, Curious	1
2) Concern for Others	1
c) Positive Emotion	(0)
1) Pleasantly Surprised	0
2) Close to Others.	0
d) No Emotion Expressed	1

TABLE XIV (Continued)

2. Activity		
a) Active Self.		11
b) Passive Self		4
c) Passive, Then Active		0
B. Stage 2 - Exploration		
1. Others' Behavior		
a) Listened to Others		3
b) Observed Others.		0
2. Tried New Behavior		2
3. Listened to Feedback About Self.		7
4. Thinking		1
5. Interaction, Sharing Self.		2
6. Identified with Others		0
C. Stage 3 - Illumination		
1. Added Concept	(4)	
a) Added Part of Self		2
b) Saw More in Others		1
c) New Ability.		1
d) Added Behavior		0
e) More Self-Assurance.		0
2. Contradictory Concept	(11)	
a) New Part of Self		6
b) Saw Others Differently		0
c) New Ability.		0
d) Changed Behavior		4
e) New Self-Assurance		1
D. Stage 4 - Validation		
1. Confirmed by Group		2
2. Confirmed by Own Feelings.		2
3. No Validation Expressed.		5
4. Validated by Results		0
5. Confirmed by Feedback.		5
6. Validated by Others' Behavior.		1

continued, specific feedback given to the subject by the group. Yet an equal number (five) were not validated or confirmed at all, which is more than a third of all unconfirmed self-concepts.

3. Group Exercises. Structured group exercises were the third most common type of incident to initiate the unfreezing. (See Table XV.) Naturally, they all were initiated by, or directly involving the leader, and all occurred in the group. All reports indicated that the changes were in the positive direction. Perhaps it should be mentioned here that 11 of the 14 reports of group exercises were from my two groups. Most of the subjects were active in the exercises. Three out of the total five reports indicating pleasant surprise occurred in this category.

Several people explored possibilities by trying out a new behavior. The new concept was often confirmed by the group as a whole and the sharing of the group experience.

4. Confrontation. Fourteen people reported incidents that began with a confrontation as shown in Table XVI. Four of these incidents did not occur in the group, and four involved the group leader. All reports indicated that the initial emotional experience was negative with the incidents eliciting either tension, anger, or embarrassment. Yet, the outcome of 10 of these incidents was perceived to be change in the positive direction.

Confrontation most often caused subjects to redefine an existing construct in a different way--forming a self-concept that contradicted a previously held view of self.

TABLE XV

Group Exercises
In Stage 1 - Unfreezing

CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS
I. Group or Not Group Incident	
A. Group Incident	14
B. Not Group Incident	0
II. Leader Involvement	
A. Leader Involved	14
B. Leader Not Involved	0
III. Direction of Change	
A. Positive	14
B. Negative	0
C. Neutral	0
IV. Change Process	
A. Stage 1 - Unfreezing	
1. Emotional Tone	
a) Negative Emotion	(8)
1) Tension	7
2) Anger	0
3) Embarrassment	0
4) Different from Others	1
b) Neutral Emotion	(3)
1) Surprise, Shock, Curious	2
2) Concern for Others	1
c) Positive Emotion	(3)
1) Pleasantly Surprised	3
2) Close to Others	0
d) No Emotion Expressed	0

TABLE XV (Continued)

2. Activity	
a) Active Self.	11
b) Passive Self	3
c) Passive, Then Active	0
B. Stage 2 - Exploration	
1. Others' Behavior	
a) Listened to Others	2
2) Observed Others.	2
2. Tried New Behavior	5
3. Listened to Feedback About Self.	3
4. Thinking	2
5. Interaction, Sharing Self.	0
6. Identified with Others	0
C. Stage 3 - Illumination	
1. Added Concept	(6)
a) Added Part of Self	2
b) Saw More in Others	1
c) New Ability.	2
d) Added Behavior	0
e) More Self-Assurance.	1
2. Contradictory Concept	(8)
a) New Part of Self	6
b) Saw Others Differently	0
c) New Ability.	2
d) Changed Behavior	0
e) New Self-Assurance	0
D. Stage 4 - Validation	
1. Confirmed by Group	6
2. Confirmed by Group	3
3. No Validation Expressed.	1
4. Validated by Results	1
5. Confirmed by Feedback.	3
6. Validated by Others' Behavior.	0

TABLE XVI

Confrontation
In Stage 1 - Unfreezing

CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS
I. Group or Not Group Incident	
A. Group Incident	10
B. Not Group Incident	4
II. Leader Involvement	
A. Leader Involved	4
B. Leader Not Involved	10
III. Direction of Change	
A. Positive	10
B. Negative	3
C. Neutral	1
IV. Change Process	
A. Stage 1 - Unfreezing	
1. Emotional Tone	
a) Negative Emotion	(14)
1) Tension	6
2) Anger	5
3) Embarrassment	3
4) Different from Others	0
b) Neutral Emotion	(0)
1) Surprise, Shock, Curious	0
2) Concern for Others	0
c) Positive Emotion	(0)
1) Pleasantly Surprised	0
2) Close to Others	0
d) No Emotion Expressed	0

TABLE XVI (Continued)

2. Activity		
a) Active Self		11
b) Passive Self		2
c) Passive, Then Active		1
B. Stage 2 - Exploration		
1. Others' Behavior		
a) Listened to Others		1
b) Observed Others		0
2. Tried New Behavior		3
3. Listened to Feedback About Self		4
4. Thinking		3
5. Interaction, Sharing Self		3
6. Identified with Others		0
C. Stage 3 - Illumination		
1. Added Concept		(3)
a) Added Part of Self		2
b) Saw More in Others		0
c) New Ability		0
d) Added Behavior		1
e) More Self-Assurance		0
2. Contradictory Concept		(11)
a) New Part of Self		4
b) Saw Others Differently		1
c) New Ability		5
d) Changed Behavior		1
e) New Self-Assurance		0
D. Stage 4 - Validation		
1. Confirmed by Group		4
2. Confirmed by Own Feelings		0
3. No Validation Expressed		3
4. Validated by Results		4
5. Confirmed by Feedback		3
6. Validated by Others' Behavior		0

5. New Situation. Seven subjects reported incidents that were precipitated by being in a new situation, and four of the new situations were not in the group. Trends under each of the subcategories for this type of incident are not particularly remarkable, and the sample is small. (See Table XVII.)

6. Self-Disclosure. (See Table XVIII.) Only four incidents were reported to have been caused by the subjects' own sharing of self with others in the group, and none of these incidents were leader initiated. Of course, all subjects were active in this kind of incident. Though emotions varied, the outcome of each was a positive change. Three of the four subjects added a new concept of self that had not been perceived before.

7. Feeling Different, Unlike Others. Three reports fell into this category, and only one of them was about a group incident. Tension dominated the emotions, though two new self-concepts were defined as an increase in self-assurance. (See Table XIX.)

TABLE XVII

New Situation In Stage 1 - Unfreezing

CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS
I. Group or Not Group Incident	
A. Group Incident	2
B. Not Group Incident	5
II. Leader Involvement	
A. Leader Involved.	2
B. Leader Not Involved.	5
III. Direction of Change	
A. Positive	5
B. Negative	0
C. Neutral.	2
IV. Change Process	
A. Stage 1 - Unfreezing	
1. Emotional Tone	
a) Negative Emotion	(5)
1) Tension.	4
2) Anger.	0
3) Embarrassment.	0
4) Different from others.	1
b) Neutral Emotion	(0)
1) Surprise, Shock, Curious	0
2) Concern for Others	0
c) Positive Emotion	(2)
1) Pleasantly Surprised	1
2) Close to Others.	1
d) No Emotion Expressed	0

TABLE XVII (Continued)

2. Activity		
	a) Active Self.	4
	b) Passive Self	3
	c) Passive, Then Active	0
B. Stage 2 - Exploration		
1. Others' Behavior		
	a) Listened to Others	0
	b) Observed Others.	1
2. Tried New Behavior		2
3. Listened to Feedback About Self. . . .		1
4. Thinking		1
5. Interaction, Sharing Self.		1
6. Identified with Others		1
C. Stage 3 - Illumination		
1. Added Concept		(2)
	a) Added Part of Self	0
	b) Saw More in Others	1
	c) New Ability.	0
	d) Added Behavior	0
	e) More Self-Assurance.	1
2. Contradictory Concept		(5)
	a) New Part of Self	1
	b) Saw Others Differently	2
	c) New Ability.	2
	d) Changed Behavior	0
	e) New Self-Assurance	0
D. Stage 4 - Validation		
1. Confirmed by Group		0
2. Confirmed by Own Feelings.		2
3. No Validation Expressed.		1
4. Validated by Results		1
5. Confirmed by Feedback.		0
6. Validated by Others' Behavior.		3

TABLE XVIII

Self-Disclosure
In Stage 1 - Unfreezing

CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS
I. Group or Not Group Incident	
A. Group Incident	4
B. Not Group Incident	0
II. Leader Involvement	
A. Leader Involved.	0
B. Leader Not Involved.	4
III. Direction of Change	
A. Positive	4
B. Negative	0
C. Neutral.	0
IV. Change Process	
A. Stage 1 - Unfreezing	
1. Emotional Tone	
a) Negative Emotion	(2)
1) Tension.	1
2) Anger.	1
3) Embarrassment.	0
4) Different from Others.	0
b) Neutral Emotion	(1)
1) Surprise, Shock, Curious	0
2) Concern for Others	1
c) Positive Emotion	(1)
1) Pleasantly Surprised	0
2) Close to Others.	1
d) No Emotion Expressed	0

TABLE XVIII (Continued)

2. Activity

a) Active Self. 4
b) Passive Self 0
c) Passive, Then Active 0

B. Stage 2 - Exploration

1. Others' Behavior

a) Listened to Others 1
b) Observed Others. 0

2. Tried New Behavior 2
3. Listened to Feedback About Self. . . . 0
4. Thinking 0
5. Interaction, Sharing Self. 1
6. Identified with Others 0

C. Stage 3 - Illumination

1. Added Concept (3)

a) Added Part of Self 2
b) Saw More in Others 0
c) New Ability. 1
d) Added Behavior 0
e) More Self-Assurance. 0

2. Contradictory Concept (1)

a) New Part of Self 1
b) Saw Others Differently 0
c) New Ability. 0
d) Changed Behavior 0
e) New Self-Assurance 0

D. Stage 4 - Validation

1. Confirmed by Group 1
2. Confirmed by Own Feelings. 2
3. No Validation Expressed. 0
4. Validated by Results 0
5. Confirmed by Feedback. 1
6. Validated by Others' Behavior. . . . 0

TABLE XIX

Feeling Different, Unlike Others
In Stage 1 - Unfreezing

CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS
I. Group or Not Group Incident	
A. Group Incident	1
B. Not Group Incident	2
II. Leader Involvement	
A. Leader Involved.	1
B. Leader Not Involved.	2
III. Direction of Change	
A. Positive	2
B. Negative	1
C. Neutral.	0
IV. Change Process	
A. Stage 1 - Unfreezing	
1. Emotional Tone	
a) Negative Emotion	(3)
1) Tension.	3
2) Anger.	0
3) Embarrassment.	0
4) Different from Others.	0
b) Neutral Emotion	(0)
1) Surprise, Shock, Curious	0
2) Concern for Others	0
c) Positive Emotion	(0)
1) Pleasantly Surprised	0
2) Close to Others.	0
d) No Emotion Expressed	0

TABLE XIX (Continued)

2. Activity

a) Active Self. 2
b) Passive Self 1
c) Passive, Then Active 0

B. Stage 2 - Exploration

1. Others' Behavior

a) Listened to Others 0
b) Observed Others. 0

2. Tried New Behavior 0
3. Listened to Feedback About Self. . . . 1
4. Thinking 2
5. Interaction, Sharing Self. 0
6. Identified with Others 0

C. Stage 3 - Illumination

1. Added Concept (1)

a) Added Part of Self 0
b) Saw More in Others 0
c) New Ability. 0
d) Added Behavior 0
e) More Self-Assurance. 1

2. Contradictory Concept (2)

a) New Part of Self 1
b) Saw Others Differently 0
c) New Ability. 0
d) Changed Behavior 0
e) New Self-Assurance 1

D. Stage 4 - Validation

1. Confirmed by Group 0
2. Confirmed by Own Feelings. 2
3. No Validation Expressed. 1
4. Validated by Results 0
5. Confirmed by Feedback. 0
6. Validated by Others' Behavior. 0

Tennessee Self Concept Scale

To have a quantitative measure of self-concept change the Tennessee Self Concept Scale was used for the pre-test and post-test. The pre-test was administered at the beginning of the fall semester, 1977, at the first or second meeting of the six participating encounter groups. One hundred and three students completed the pre-test Scale, although 22 of those 103 did not take the post-test.

The post-test Scale was administered at the last session of each of the encounter groups. Each group had had at least 45 contact hours throughout the semester. Eighty-nine students completed the post-test, but eight of them had not taken the pre-test. The 22 people who took the pre-test but not the post-test, and the eight who had filled out a post-test but not a pre-test, were dropped from the sample which was used for the analysis of the changes between the pre-test and post-test scores. The resulting 81 subjects made up the sample for the statistical analysis of the pre-test and post-test Scale scores.

Forty-three people reported one or more critical incidents. Of the total 30 subjects who were dropped from the Scale sample because they were lacking either the pre-test or the post-test, five of these subjects had turned in a total of seven critical incidents. Of the 81 subjects who had taken both tests, 31 subjects, or 47 percent, had reported critical incidents. Forty-three of the 81 subjects (53 per cent) did not report a critical incident.

The statistical analysis of all 14 Scale scores includes three analyses of variance between the means of: (1) the 81 pre-test and post-test scores, and (2) the combined pre-test and post-test scores of the group who turned in critical incident reports compared to the combined scores of the group which did not. Also, included is (3) a two-factor analysis of variance among the means of the 14 Scale scores from the pre-test and post-test, and the group with critical incident reports and the group without reports.

The results of the statistical analyses of the 14 Scale scores are presented in the following three tables.

In the sample of 81 subjects from the six encounter groups, four scores on the Scale increased significantly from the pre-test to the post-test. The score most indicative of overall self-concept, the Total Positive Score, increased at the 0.05 level of significance. Likewise, the Self-Satisfaction Score, indicating acceptance and liking of self, and the Social Self Score, indicating the sense of worth in social interaction, both increased significantly at the 0.05 level. The most significant increase ($P < 0.01$) between the pre-test and post-test scores occurred between the pre and post Personal Self Scores, indicating a higher evaluation of one's own personality, personal worth, and adequacy.

All scores concerning various aspects of self-perception tended to increase from the pre-test to the post-test. The variability scores tended to decrease indicating that

TABLE XX

Comparison of Pre-Test to Post-Test Scores

SCORE	GROUP 1[n] PRE-TEST	GROUP 2[n] POST-TEST
A. Self-Critcism	35.66	35.97
B. Total Positive	343.37	348.80[a]
1. Row 1 - Identity	126.13	127.58
2. Row 2 - Self-Satisfaction	105.42	108.02[a]
3. Row 3 - Behavior	111.82	113.20
4. Column A - Physical Self	69.47	69.64
5. Column B - Moral-Eithical Self	68.17	69.37
6. Column C. - Personal Self	66.28	68.43[b]
7. Column D - Family Self	70.40	70.67
8. Column E. - Social Self	69.05	70.69[a]
C. Total Variability	45.91	45.00
1. Column Variability	27.88	27.31
2. Row Variability	18.03	17.69
D. Distribution	110.60	112.22

[n]Sample Size 81

[a]$P < 0.05$

[b]$P < 0.01$

subjects became somewhat more consistent in their evaluations of self from one specific area to another. None of the means of the 14 scores varied significantly from the established norms.

TABLE XXI

Comparison of Scale Scores
of Subjects With and Without Critical Incident Reports

SCORE	GROUP 1[a]	GROUP 2[b]
A. Self-Criticism	35.66	35.97
B. Total Positive	349.95	342.21
1. Row 1 - Identity	128.02	125.68
2. Row 2 - Self-Satisfaction	108.91	104.53
3. Row 3 - Behavior	113.02	112.00
4. Column A - Physical Self	70.33	68.79
5. Column B - Moral-Ethical Self	70.06	67.47
6. Column C - Personal Self	67.57	67.13
7. Column D - Family Self	71.91	69.71
8. Column E - Social Self	70.09	69.65
C. Total Variability	43.50	47.41
1. Column Variability	26.28	28.91
2. Row Variability	17.22	18.50
D. Distribution	111.23	111.59

[a]Without critical incident reports, sample size 43

[b]With critical incident reports, sample size 38

Comparison was made of combined pre-test and post-test means between Group 1, subjects with no critical incident reports; and Group 2, subjects with one or more critical incident reports. There was no significant difference between the Scale scores of those who turned in critical incident reports and those who did not. People who reported critical incidents tended to be a little more critical of themselves and have less consistency or integration of the different areas of self-concept. The people who did not turn in critical incident reports tended to have higher scores in all specific areas of self-concept than those who reported critical incidents.

Table XXII shows the results of the two factor analysis of variance for each of the 14 Scale scores. The first factor includes: (1) the means on the pre-tests, and (2) the means on the post-tests. The second factor is divided into: level 1--subjects without critical incident reports, and level 2--subjects with critical incident reports.

None of the results shown in Table XXII are significant at the 0.05 level. Specifically, the differences between the changes on the pre-tests and post-tests for those with critical incident reports and those without reports are not significant for any of the Scale scores. Subjects who turned in questionnaires tended to have lower self-concept scores on the pre-test than those who did not fill out any questionnaires. And those with critical incident reports tended to increase their self-concept scores more than the others,

TABLE XXII

Two-Factor Analysis

	PRE-TEST WITHOUT REPORTS	PRE-TEST WITH REPORTS	POST-TEST WITHOUT REPORTS	POST-TEST WITH REPORTS
A. Self-Criticism	35.54	35.71	35.79	36.24
B. Total Positive	348.63	338.11	351.28	346.32
1. Identity	127.81	124.45	128.23	126.92
2. Self-Satisfaction	108.09	102.74	109.72	106.32
3. Behavior	112.72	110.92	113.33	113.08
4. Physical Self	70.44	68.50	70.21	69.08
5. Moral-Ethical Self	69.47	66.87	70.65	68.08
6. Personal Self	66.81	65.74	68.33	68.53
7. Family Self	72.26	68.55	71.56	69.79
8. Social Self	69.65	68.45	70.54	70.84
C. Total Variability	44.16	47.66	42.84	47.16
1. Column Variability	26.42	29.34	26.14	28.47
2. Row Variability	17.74	18.32	16.70	18.68
D. Distribution	110.86	110.34	111.61	112.84

though they did not increase enough to reach the mean of those without reports, nor to reach a significant level of increase when compared to the change obtained by the other sample.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

As stated in the first chapter, the purpose of this study was to investigate and define the process of self-concept change by people in the encounter group setting. By analyzing the content of the critical incident reports and changes in scores on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, specific information was uncovered about:

1. How changes in self-concept come about or evolve by looking at what occurrences precipitate the process,
2. What the process of change is and what developmental components are included in the process, and
3. What may contribute to facilitating positive self-concept change.

In this chapter, I approach the discussion of the results by following the order of the above three points. Conclusions and discussion from the critical incident reports and the Scale results are applied to each point.

1. Occurrences which precipitate self-concept change are often events that elicit negative emotional reactions. Seventy-one percent of the critical incident reports included descriptions of negative emotion, emotion that is unpleasant experienced in the initial stage of the process.

Vivid descriptions of the negative emotions aroused by the incident included many expressions of tension, anxiety, fear, dread, nervousness, confusion, insecurity, and feeling upset. Several other subjects expressed anger, suspicion, frustration, defensiveness, embarrassment, guilt, the feelings of foolishness and difference or being unlike others.

The findings support theories cited in Chapter II about experiences or conditions that may promote the initial stage of the change process. This first stage is variously referred to as unfreezing, awareness of anomaly, preparation, etc., in the theories of scientific revolution, personal constructs, creativity, and learning. It is predictably attended by tension and anxiety. Likewise, self-concept is often initiated by events which elicit such negative emotion.

2. The process of self-concept change is parallel to the processes of creativity and learning. Specific evidence of the four stages in the change process found in the critical incident reports shows a close correspondence between the process of changing self-concept and the processes of creating and learning.

In Stage 1 of the creative process, learning, or the process of forming any new personal construct, and especially self-constructs, the individual experiences a period of anomaly or ambiguity. As the subjects themselves reported, the critical incidents which caused them to open up to new self-perceptions were unanticipated events which were not

easily incorporated into the personal construct system. The events may be merely listening to or observing others, giving or receiving feedback, confrontation, or self-disclosure, or participating in a group exercise. Whatever the unfreezing incident is, it opens the person up to new perceptions of self and awareness of conflicting information about self.

As discussed in Chapter II, self-concept is an individually created personal construct. According to Kelly new personal constructs are likely to be formed in an atmosphere of experimentation and with the presence of a fresh set of elements unbound by old constructs. The encounter group setting in general can be seen to provide such an environment. It is a laboratory in which participants are encouraged to discover and experiment with their own interpersonal communication styles and behaviors. The laboratory group offers an insular and protected environment removed from everyday personal and social influences where new experiences are likely.

In Stage 2 the person attempts to resolve the dilemma perceived at Stage 1, or to alleviate the tension and anxiety caused by the incident. As detailed in the subjects' reports, at this stage the person will explore, experiment, search for clues to resolve the dilemma and minimize the tension. Such searching and exploring may be done by trying out a new behavior, receiving new information from others, or thinking about the problem. The critical

incident reports indicate that those who reported a self-concept change continued to explore until a new construct was illuminated.

The illumination in Stage 3 was frequently of a new self-concept that disconfirmed a previously held construct. This self-discovery clearly corresponds to Thomas Kuhn's view that new discoveries do not come from validating old concepts, but from the anomaly, crises, and formation of different concepts.[97] Learning is not a linear accumulation of information or knowledge. Old attitudes or theories are disconfirmed and new ones are formed. In 61 percent of the critical incident reports, the subjects indicated that an old way of perceiving self had been disconfirmed and a new concept was created. The other reports concerned the formation of new concepts that were added to the rest of the construct system but did not contradict it.

Stage 4 - Validation, seems to be an essential step in the change process if the new concept is to be integrated into the personal construct system. As in learning and creativity, the validation is needed to complete the process. The effects of validation on the direction of change are discussed under the fourth conclusion.

3. Encounter groups tend to facilitate positive self-concept change. From the six encounter groups, "Human Relations in Group Interaction I," 76 percent of the students

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[97]Kuhn, p. 89.

who reported critical incidents indicated that they experienced a positive self-concept change as a result of the event(s). Sixty-five reports, or 86 percent, were of in-group incidents and 78 percent of the group incidents resulted in positive self-concept change.

Specific events in the group which promoted positive self-concept change often involved group exercises. All incidents related to group exercises had positive outcomes, and obviously the leader was involved in them. Leader involvement in other incidents with positive outcomes clearly points to the significance of the leader in the groups and the influence a group leader has on the outcome of the experience.

Statistical support for the conclusion that encounter groups facilitate positive self-concept change is provided by the significance of the changes in four of the pre-test, post-test scores from the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. These are changes represented by the 81 students from the six groups who took both the pre-test and the post-test. While all of the 14 scores on the Scale reflected a tendency for increased self-esteem, the Total Positive score, the Self-Satisfaction score, and the Social Self score all increased above the 0.05 level of significance. The increase in the Personal Self Score was a significant change at the 0.01 level.

The Total Positive score is the most comprehensive single score indicating the overall level of self-esteem.

It is the combination of the added Self-Identity, Self-Satisfaction, and Behavior scores, or the added Physical Self, Moral-Ethical Self, Personal Self, Family Self, and Social Self scores. The degree of change in this one score between the pre-test and post-test for the sample of 81 students is sufficient to indicate that the group experience did facilitate positive self-concept change in the participants.

The Self-Satisfaction score and the Personal Self score can be seen to reflect similar aspects of the self-concept. Thus, it is not surprising that each of them showed a similar significant increase. The Self-Satisfaction score reflects a person's acceptance and liking of self. The Personal Self score shows one's attitudes toward his or her own personality and individual characteristics apart from physical aspects or relationships with others. The statistically significant increase in both of these scores shows that the encounter group experience did positively affect the participants' liking and regard for self.

The increase in the Social Self score might naturally be expected as a result of the encounter group course. This score reflects a person's feelings about himself or herself in relation to other people. In the encounter group each person has spent 45 hours communicating with others in the group and working to establish close interpersonal relationships. The Social Self score indicates that the participants feel better about themselves in such interpersonal relationships.

When comparing the changes in the Scale scores of those group members who reported critical incidents to those who did not, the two-factor analysis shows that those with reports tended to have a greater increase in self-esteem. They tended to have lower scores on the pre-test and increased the scores almost enough to reach the same level that subjects with no reports had on the post-test. This tendency parallels the theory that people who are dissatisfied with themselves will be more open to and willing to change than people who are basically satisfied with themselves. In their article on "Change in Self-Identity in a Management Training Conference," French, Sherwood, and Bradford found that the state of the individual affects the degree of change "for the more he is dissatisfied with his present self-perceptions, the more he is likely to change them."[98]

The difference in the amount of Scale score change between the two groups also suggests that either the group events were viewed as more critical, poignant, or important for those who reported them and they were therefore more affected by them, or perhaps that people who did experience a greater self-concept change reflected those changes in the reports.

4. Confirmation or lack of confirmation of a changed self-concept is a direct predictor of the direction of change. Of the 48 reports of positive self-concept change only two

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[98]French, Sherwood, and Bradford, p. 218.

gave no indication that the concept was validated. Fifty-six included clear indications that the new self-concept was confirmed or validated in some way. On the other hand, eight out of 10 reports of negative change were unconfirmed, and half of the neutral changes were unconfirmed. Testing the validity of the new self-concept appears to be an essential ingredient in the change process if the outcome is to be positive. Perhaps those people who begin to see a new, negative aspect of self are hesitant to share and check out their perception with others. This would support the notion that self-disclosure and receiving feedback play an important part in self-acceptance and self-liking, for chances are that other people will not view the person as negatively as the person does. Validation of negative self-concepts, therefore, would not be as likely as the confirmation of positive parts of self.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

In this study the critical incident technique was combined with a self-concept pre-test and post-test to determine what the process of self-concept change is and what is likely to facilitate positive self-concept change. Members of six encounter groups provided the total sample of possible respondents. The Tennessee Self Concept Scale was administered to each group at their first or second meeting and at the last meeting. The groups were briefed at the same session in which they took the pre-test. At that time consent to participate was requested and instructions were given. Eighty-one students from the six groups completed both the pre-test and the post-test. Forty-three people reported a total of 76 critical incidents.

Two raters analyzed the content of the critical incident reports with attention given to nine major headings concerning the process and direction of self-concept change. Each of the headings was subcategorized to expand analysis of the content of the reports. The nature of the critical incidents and the steps in the change process were described.

The pre-test and post-test Scales were scored and an analysis of variance was performed to determine the direction and amount of change in the scores of all 81 responding subjects, and the differences in the amount of change in scores

between the group reporting critical incidents and the group with no reports.

It was found that (1) occurrences which precipitate self-concept change are often events that elicit negative emotional reactions, (2) the process of self-concept change is parallel to the processes of creativity and learning, (3) encounter groups tend to facilitate positive self-concept change, and (4) confirmation or lack of confirmation of a changed self-concept is a direct predictor of the direction of change.

Recommendations

The research conducted for this study was essentially exploratory. Discovering that the critical incident reports show the change process to parallel the processes of creativity and learning points to other avenues for further study.

The questionnaire used in this study was not designed specifically to highlight the four stages in the process. Yet, the four stages were commonly evident. Future studies could be conducted using a questionnaire designed specifically to receive responses concerning each of the four stages. If the questionnaire asked for more information concerning each of the stages, more detailed data could be gleaned about each stage and the movement through the stages. Four parts could be included on the questionnaire to correspond to the four stages, such as:

1. Describe the incident that opened you up to the possibility of a new self-perception. Describe who, where, how, when, and what happened. Include what you did, thought, and felt as it was happening.
2. If the above incident caused some problem, question, or dilemma for you, what was it, and how did you seek to resolve it?
3. What was the outcome of the incident? What concept of yourself do you have now that you did not have before the incident? What is your attitude or feeling about this new self-concept?
4. Did you attempt to obtain confirmation or validation of the new self-concept? How did you do this?

More data should be gathered about the process of self-concept change. Larger samples would add weight to the process view. Samples which include subjects from a broader spectrum of the population would be helpful. People of ages, educational backgrounds, and life styles different from college students should be included. Also, other settings for self-concept change should be examined and compared to the encounter group setting.

Based on the results of this study it appears fruitful to examine self-concept change as a complex process. Studies which emphasize the process and its components, rather than merely testing before and after an event, are likely to furnish more insight into the information about change, i.e., how people respond to, become involved in, and carry out change.

> Conflict drives toward unity, the contradictions yield to a higher synthesis. Wake up and you will see the divine comedy behind the seeming tragic conflicts of history. The cure is rebirth.[99]

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[99] Sam Keen, "Transpersonal Psychology: The Cosmic Versus the Rational," Psychology Today, 8, No. 2, (July 1974), p. 59.

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APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRES

PILOT QUESTIONNAIRE

Personal Data: Date:_____

1. Code Number _____.
2. I am in my _____semester of my _____ year as a student at the University of Kansas.
3. My major is _____.

The incident below was significantly effective in causing me to or allowing me to see myself differently--to see myself in a new way.

- - - -

FINAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Personal Data: Date:_____

1. Student Number _____.
2. I am a student at the University of Kansas in my _____ semester of my _____ year majoring in _____.

The incident below was effective in causing me to or allowing me to see myself differently--to see myself in a new way.

- -

Situation: Please write a short but complete description of the incident. Tell just what the people said or did. (Who, what, when, where, and with what effect.) Circle the person involved if he or she was the group leader.

Inner Reaction: What I thought and/or felt as the above was happening.

How I saw myself before this happened:

How I see myself differently now:

Your answers are to be anonymous. Please do not record the real names of the persons involved. You may even distinguish them by letter or number. Use the pronouns, I or me, for yourself. Thank you.

APPENDIX II

CATEGORY SYSTEMS

Category System for the
"Effects of a T-Group Laboratory"
Developed by William Schutz and Vernon Allan[a]

1. Behavior or Respondent Toward Other People

   a. Applied results of the experience to solving human relations problems of others and to improving job performance

   b. Friendlier, easier to get along with, or simply improved behavior with people

   c. More aggressive, outgoing, extroverted behavior and more honesty, confidence, and willingness to reveal myself

   d. Improved ability to listen and better communication in general

   e. Favorable change in feelings and attitudes when with people or feelings about or toward other people

   f. No change in behavior toward other people

   g. A change for the worse

2. Respondents' Feelings Toward Other People

   a. Increased intellectual understanding, awareness, and insight about other people or interpersonal problems

   b. More appreciation, sympathy, and tolerance for other people

   c. More relaxed, at ease, less tension, and more enjoyable and improved relations with people

   d. Increased acceptance of others

   e. Feeling more sensitive, interested, honest, and realistic with people

   f. Change in feeling toward people either more or less; warm, personal, close, and liking

   g. No change in feeling

[a]William C. Schutz and Vernon L. Allen, "The Effects of a T-Group Laboratory," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 2, No. 3, (1966), pp. 272-276.

3. Respondent's Feelings and Behavior Toward Self

   a. More tolerance, acceptance and more liking for self; a less critical view of self

   b. Intellectual changes, i.e., understanding of self, increased awareness

   c. A more confident, secure, and realistic concept of self

   d. An adverse change in self-concept

   e. No change in self-concept

   f. Less anxiety, less tension, less defensiveness, or more flexibility

   g. A behavioral change, such as overt action

4. Behavior of Other People Toward Respondent

   a. No change

   b. People have become more friendly, sympathetic, and responsive to me

   c. A positive change in reactions

   d. People trust me and have more confidence in and respect for me

   e. People feel freer to express their feelings and find it easier to communicate ideas to me

   f. I make people feel better than I used to, e.g., they feel freer, more relaxed, willing to confide

   g. A change for the worse

Third Category System for Pilot Study
"Inductively Derived Categories for Content Analysis"
From a Study by D. R. Bunker[n]

A. Overt Operational Changes--Descriptive

1. Communication

S. Sending--shares information, expresses feelings, puts ideas across

R. Receiving--more effort to understand, attentive listening, understands

2. Relational Facility--cooperative, tactful, less irritating, easier to deal with, able to negotiate

3. Risk Taking--willing to take stand, less inhibited, experiments more

4. Increased Interdependence--encourages participation, involves others, greater leeway to subordinates, less dominating, lets others think

5. Functional Flexibility--more flexible, takes group roles more easily, goes out of way, contributions more helpful, less rigid

6. Self-Control--more self-discipline, less quick with judgment, checks temper

B. Inferred Changes in Insight and Attitudes

1. Awareness of Human Behavior (intellectual comprehension--more conscious of why people act, more analytic of others' actions, clear perceptions of people

2. Sensitivity to Group Behavior--more conscious of group process, aware of subcurrents in groups

3. Sensitivity to Others' Feelings--more capacity for understanding feelings, more sensitive to needs of others

4. Acceptance of Other People--able to tolerate shortcomings, considerate of individual differences, patient

[n]D. R. Bunker, "Inductively Derived Categories for Content Analysis," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1, No. 2, (1965), p. 139.

5. Tolerance of New Information--willing to accept suggestions, considers new points of view, less dogmatic, less arbitrary

6. Self-Confidence

7. Comfort--relaxed, at ease (must be specific as to setting or activity)

8. Insight into Self and Role--understands job demands, more aware of own behavior, better adjusted to job

C. Global Judgments--Gross Characterological Inferences, Noncomparable References to Special Applications of Learning, and References to Consequences of Change